

SOCIAL EDUCATION



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Editor's Page

FREEDOM AND DIGNITY

"... some can be patriotic who have no *self-respect*, and sacrifice the greater to the less. They love the soil which makes their graves, but have no sympathy with the spirit which may still animate their sky. . . ."

—THOREAU

THE only way to solve a problem is by hard-headed, realistic thinking. This goes for the social studies classroom, the office and factory, the halls of legislatures, and the councils of the world. Wishful thinking can never be a substitute for what William James called "the stubborn and irreducible fact."

We were thrust into this train of thought by a recent editorial in which the writer declared, "In Africa, Asia, and Oceania hundreds of millions of former colonial peoples have won their way to freedom, dignity, and independence." This, we submit, is precisely the kind of wishful thinking, the substitution of aspiration for achievement, that men indulge in to their great peril. Where is the "freedom, dignity, and independence" in the Congo? Where, to take an older nation, in Cuba? Where, to take a still older nation, in Bolivia in which nearly 70 percent of the people cannot read or write and a still larger percentage live out their lives in the grim shadow of abject poverty?

The flags of many new nations, once ruled as colonies but now independent states, wave proudly in the breeze before the entrance of the United Nations. Men who cherish freedom and the right of all men everywhere to live under the government of their own choosing hail this development as a great victory. We do well to look with pride and hope upon the end of traditional colonialism. Measured by where men stood, say fifty years ago, we have indeed come a long way. But we delude ourselves—all of us—if we count recent developments as any more than a limited victory, for the freedom and dignity men seek the world over is still a distant prize waiting to be grasped, the proudly waving flags notwithstanding.

Freedom and dignity are not something to be had merely for the asking. After nearly 150 years of independence from Spain, a number of the

Latin American peoples still live under the tyranny of self-appointed rulers. So, too, it is in Africa today, and so it must be as long as poverty and ignorance stand as impassable barriers to self-government.

Freedom is not a gift conferred upon a grateful people by a wise, paternal government. On the contrary, it is a value each individual must nourish in his everyday life and compel his government to safeguard. The freedom we enjoy in these United States does not flow from the Constitution and the Bill of Rights, but from the people, and it has been and will continue to be the responsibility of each generation to preserve its freedom and make that freedom ever more meaningful and vital. This is the lesson we must teach over and over and over again in our classrooms and from the public rostrum, for freedom and dignity, as we saw in the days when McCarthyism was casting a dark shadow over the land, vanishes with frightening speed in the face of apathy and ignorance.

And this is the lesson the peoples of the newly-dependent nations must learn. The revolution of rising expectations now sweeping across the earth will not be won by people who exchange the restricting rule of traditional colonialism for the even more oppressive colonialism of the Communist powers or the tyranny of self-appointed rulers lusting for power and privilege. Only by hard work, the will to forego present pleasures for future gain, and the determination to be truly free can the people of any nation hope to realize their aspirations. It is dangerous self-deception to claim, as the editorial we quoted a moment ago claims, that "hundreds of millions of colonial peoples have won their way to freedom, dignity, and independence." The peoples of the newly independent nations have not yet won these great goals. They have merely moved one step farther along the road, but the road itself still lies ahead, and those who travel it must not expect to find the going easy. This is a "stubborn and irreducible fact" from which all of us must begin our thinking and our planning.

(Concluded on page 259)

Report from Glens Falls

Mabelle E. McNulty

"THE WORLD has been at our doorstep," said Dorothy Adams Denton, third grade teacher in Glens Falls, New York, reporting to the National Council for the Social Studies at its fortieth annual meeting in Boston November 25, 1960, on a pilot project, "Improving the Teaching of World Affairs" (ITWA), now in its fourth year. "It has been up to each of us whether he opened his door just a crack, or as wide as the world is wide."

This completely permissive attitude, the lack of any syllabus or definite course, contributed to the confusion that many of the Glens Falls faculty of 190 teachers felt when the Director of ITWA, Harold M. Long, presented the plan in September of 1957. Yet within three short years every child and teacher, from kindergarten through the twelfth grade, had felt the impact of this project. The many organizations of this busy community, its businessmen, its newspapers, as well as its parents and leading citizens, had demonstrated support and approval.

Over 100 foreign guests from more than 50 countries have visited Glens Falls schools. They have come under the auspices of various organizations, such as the American Field Service, The Experiment in International Living, the Governmental Affairs Institute, the Institute of International Education, the New York Herald Tribune Forum for High Schools, and the Office of Education of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Still others have come from foreign embassies, from UNESCO, from nearby colleges, and some as personal acquaintances of faculty members. Their visits have lasted from a few days to several weeks.

Teachers of all subjects in every grade, re-examining their fields in the light of "what the peoples of the world think, feel, and do," soon felt the need to learn more about world affairs,

and to re-evaluate much information they already had. They discovered continually lengthening and crossing paths leading from their particular areas of interest to the far horizons of the world.

To answer that need for more information, a World Affairs Center was set up in the senior high school, the junior high school, and in each of the five elementary schools in this small city. Here books, including the invaluable paperbacks, filmstrips, maps, foreign periodicals, bibliographies, recordings, pamphlets, and pictures were available—and a telephone call to the ITWA office brought additional aid when this was needed.

Workshops sponsored by both ITWA and the Glens Falls Teachers Association, some on late afternoons or on Saturdays, some on half-day released time, and three seven-day sessions at the close of school in June (in an ideal setting at a camp on beautiful, nearby Lake George), brought teachers together with expert consultants to study world geography, world cultures, and world health, or to work on individual or group projects. A 30-hour, in-service course on Asian Cultures, during a school year, was given by Dr. Yu-kuang Chu of neighboring Skidmore College at Saratoga Springs, enrolling 43 Glens Falls teachers. Columbus Day, a school holiday in October, found others visiting sessions of the United Nations under ITWA guidance, and at Easter time groups of teachers from Glens Falls spent their spring vacation on an ITWA-financed trip to Washington, where they worked at the Curriculum Materials Laboratory in the Office of Education, and visited the National Education Association headquarters, the National Geographic Society, the Pan American Union, the Washington International Center, and several embassies. They returned with valises stuffed with exciting materials to use in teaching, minds chock-full of new ideas and world viewpoints, happily contagious.

Students catch teachers' enthusiasms easily, and the rising winds of world events have blown away much of the self-complacency and smugness of today's young Americans.

The author of this report teaches in the Junior High School in Glens Falls, New York. A detailed report of the program Miss McNulty here briefly describes is now being prepared and will be available in the fall.

Activities, literally by the score, sprang up, class-wide and school-wide, curricular and extra-curricular. A high school typing class exchanged model business letters with a class in a London high school. Soon the girls were slipping in personal letters, and much information was gained as friendships were formed. A second-grade class made and sent greeting cards at Christmas and Easter to a class in France. A fifth-grade class, writing to a class in Scotland, selected because the two teachers had met the previous summer, noted the meticulous penmanship of the Scottish children, became conscious of their own careless scrawls, and tried to improve their handwriting. When the Scottish children sent them maps of their home area, the children set about learning map-making skills, so that they could return a set of similar maps of their locale, to their new friends.

Junior high school students gave up Christmas parties in favor of overseas gift-giving. CARE packages were sent, as were subscriptions for Indian children to *Sunshine*, a newspaper. In 1960, contributions to the hospital ship HOPE involved not only fund-raising, with its accompanying poster-making, classroom competition, and speechmaking, but also evaluating and selecting projects. The students examined the needs of the countries to receive the aid, and conducted assembly programs to launch and to culminate the drives.

A year's program, "Accent on Africa," brought visitors from Ghana, Kenya and Nigeria to the Junior High School assemblies and classrooms. Clipping files on Africa appeared in the school library, exhibits of African carvings, currency, cloth, crafts, and stamps filled display cases, while tape recordings answered questions sent by a class in Kenya, and an interschool conference of ninth graders met with visiting African students in round-table discussions.

The school newspaper, *Junior Highlights*, editorially supporting the drives, encouraged participation in the "Accent on Africa" program, and reported other ITWA stories because they were news of activities in which students were interested. The student editors found that the ITWA director often asked for extra copies to send to teachers writing for concrete examples of ITWA activities.

Homemaking teachers found that fascination with foreign food soon led to discussing why recipes from one country used olive oil so freely, whereas those of another used butter; why overweight is a serious problem in the United States;

what are FAO and WHO and just what are they doing?

Industrial arts teachers used a study of the metric system for mathematic drill, and stirred discussion over the rival merits of imported cars and American models.

Physical education teachers exploited the natural interest in Olympic Games to spark an awareness of world affairs. They compared the muscular strength and endurance of American boys and girls, as shown in standardized tests, with that of young people of other nations, and noted the similarities of games played in different countries.

A third-grade class indignantly rejected the proposal that a tape recording they had prepared be sent to a class in an English-speaking nation. Instead, they selected a "faraway" place, Hiroshima. When they received in return a tape in Japanese, with an English translation by the Japanese teacher, Mr. Tamura, they enlisted the services of Eiichi Sawamura, a Japanese teacher visiting Glens Falls under the ITWA program, to prepare similar translations for them. Mr. Sawamura taught them how to greet the Japanese children, how to say hello and goodbye, and how to sing a Japanese song. The third graders, in return, taught their visitor to play jacks! They included on their tape this message:

"We have taught Mr. Sawamura to play jacks because he was very eager to learn the game. He learned very quickly. Mr. Sawamura has promised to teach Mr. Tamura to play jacks. Then when Mr. Tamura returns to Hiroshima, he will show you how to play jacks."

Music students prepared concert program notes, learning about the nationalities of composers, their place in history, and the meaning of their music. Art students drew travel posters, studied exhibits of student art from other countries, and tried to catch in their own work the flavor of other lands and cultures.

In the senior high school, a Speakers Corps, organized by a speech class, divided themselves into teams of two, three, four, or five members, and prepared half-hour programs dealing with current world affairs, including visual aids as well as talks. When they offered their services to clubs, Parent Teacher Association units and other community groups, they received more invitations than they had time to accept.

The list of such activities is endless, and one leads to another, apparently spontaneously. But such a mushroom growth of interest on the part of students and teachers did not happen by acci-

dent. The whole ITWA program was carefully planned and has been skillfully directed. For nearly a year before the formal beginning of ITWA, the National Council for the Social Studies had been discussing the feasibility of such a pilot study. Spurred by the willingness of William L. Breese, long interested in world affairs, to assume a share of the cost of the program over a three-year period, a committee of the Council asked Harold M. Long to meet with them to formulate plans for the project. They had selected the Glens Falls school system, which enrolls 3100 students, for the experiment, both because of the quality of teaching there, and because the community itself had shown over a period of years a lively interest in world affairs. The guiding principles agreed upon by the committee were these:

1. The program would involve all grades and all subjects in the school system.
2. It would operate within the existing curriculum, not as a separate course or project.
3. It would use all possible resources of teaching and evaluation.
4. It would be clearly and definitely related to the community.
5. Its budget would be limited to a modest figure to demonstrate the practicability of such a program.

All of these principles have been faithfully followed. Funds for ITWA's modest budget of \$15,000 a year have come from Mr. Breese's contributions, from the Helen Dwight Reid Foundation, from the National Council for the Social Studies, *The New York Times*, and *Time*, Inc. Later NEA and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace granted aid. Growing community interest was shown by contributions made by individuals through the Glens Falls Rotary Club, and by a \$2,000 contribution from the Glens Falls Foundation. The community has shown active interest in other ways. A Glens Falls World Affairs Council of Citizens was organized, which has aided in entertaining overseas students and has started a plan to adopt a European sister city for Glens Falls. ITWA has cooperated with community organizations already active in international programs.

The community ambassadors, young people who have been sent from this community during previous summers to live with families in nations of their choice, organized themselves and offered their services as resource consultants. They have visited schools and classrooms to give first-hand accounts of family and community life in other countries. They have also cheerfully accepted responsibility for the reception of visitors here

from other nations. The visitors themselves who were entertained in the homes of Glens Falls people gave great enjoyment and satisfaction to their hosts, and in return expressed pleasure in learning about American family life.

A series of tests to determine achievement, attitudes and alertness to news sources were given to grades 5, 8 and 11 in 1958, and to grades 6, 9, and 12 in 1960, both in the Glens Falls system and, at the same time, in another New York State school of the same size. Whatever the test results may show, when analyzed, teachers and students know that they have grown and changed in their outlook on world affairs. Terms such as population explosion, world health, democratic and economic revolutions, and cultural lag are meaningful and lasting parts of their vocabulary; a variety of maps and globes help them to picture the world as a part of every-day living; cartoons and editorials show not only what they think of the world, but what the world thinks of them; and they have become concerned about all these things. They have learned the truth of Dr. Leonard Kenworthy's remark to one workshop group that international understanding is the ability to associate differences with friendliness rather than hostility.

How could a formal test reveal an experience such as one senior high school girl related in commenting on ITWA? She had written approvingly of novels on Asia she had read in connection with her English class, and added:

"These books are interesting and develop our concept of a country's culture and background; but they don't make the people any more real. It takes exchange students to do this. I doubt if I will ever forget the Chinese girl, Yeng. We invited her to our installation of the new Hi-Y members. Here we wanted her to become an honorary member. At this point she began to cry. We were terrified for fear we had offended her, or perhaps she couldn't join because the pledge mentioned Christian character. It was nothing so drastic that had caused the tears. She felt she didn't deserve anything so wonderful! In voicing this opinion we believe that she did deserve it more than anyone in the club. If we had understood her more as she comprehended how much it meant for us to be accepted to the Hi-Y, we would not have thought we had offended her.

"Anyway, Yeng made the story-book characters live. Possibly the next Chinese person I meet may be disagreeable, but no matter how much so, he will never destroy the favorable impression Yeng has left with me."

Patents, Economics, and the Antitrust Laws

Reuben E. Slesinger

TO UNDERSTAND the scope of patent law and coverage under the antitrust policy of the United States, it is necessary to appreciate why patents originally were granted and what purposes they were intended to fulfill. The American patent system was established to promote the progress of science and the useful arts. The ideology of the system is essentially British, borrowing much from the English Common Law. Britain did not always have patent laws, however. The early Anglo-Saxon Common Law did not recognize patent rights; anybody could make anything that he had the ability to produce. Subsequently, the idea of patent protection appeared in Great Britain as inventors began to receive *literae patentes* or open letters granting them exclusive rights to their particular inventions for specified periods of time. These appear to be the first instances of protection to inventors.

These letters permitted the recipients to exclude competitors from their lines of commerce, and so became associated with laws and precedents dealing with monopolies. It is interesting to note, further, that the technological advancement of the arts and sciences often was not the reason for the issuance of a letter; rather it was the revenue to be derived from the fee charged by the crown for this privilege. From the theoretical side, the moral justification for granting a patent was based on the idea that the receipt of a patent right deprived society of nothing; prior to the invention society did not enjoy this item and so nothing would be taken away if the inventor were given exclusive privileges. In fact, there would be a social contribution as the public now would have the fruits of his work.

The first important British case that defined

the conditions under which a right of monopoly might be upheld, *Darcy v. Allein*, pointed out that "... when any man by his own ... wit or invention doth bring any new trade into the realm ... and that for the good of the realm ... the king may grant to him a monopoly—patent for some reasonable time, until the subjects may learn the same, in consideration of the good that he doth bring by his invention to the commonwealth, otherwise not..."¹

The status of patent rights was not completely clear because the early courts preferred to treat monopolies as a violation of the Common Law. Patent letters and other monopolies were receiving greater public disfavor because of the continual encroachment of the royal prerogative on the Common Law, especially by Elizabeth and James I. Finally, in 1625, Parliament enacted the Statute of Monopolies which voided all monopolies and letters of patent that had the effect of endowing one with the sole right to buy, make, sell, use, or vend anything. There was an exception, however, in the case of inventions which could receive these exclusive privileges for a period not to exceed 14 years. This law, which formalized many of the then existing Common Law practices, has become the legal base for most of the American patent structure.

The fathers of the American Constitution reflected their concern with patents when they granted to Congress the power to "... promote the progress of science and the useful arts by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries." In accordance with this power Congress has enacted various measures, the basic one of which states that "... whoever invents or discovers any new and useful process, ... or any new and useful improvements thereof ... may obtain a patent thereof, subject to the conditions and requirements of this title. ..."

The generally accepted philosophy in the

Dr. Slesinger, who here analyzes the complicated relationship of patent and antitrust legislation, is Professor of Economics at The University of Pittsburgh.

¹ *Darcy v. Allein*, 77 English Rep, 11 Coke Rep 846.

United States is that patent rights, although monopolistic, are to be treated differently from other commercial monopolies. It follows the earlier British attitude that a patent right is a reward for the invention or discovery of something new which adds to the total of human knowledge and thereby benefits society. Underlying this approach is the idea that the traditional monopoly involves taking something away from the public, such as an exclusive grant to conduct business to one particular vendor when others are competing for this favor, or the monopoly that might result when a powerful producer deprives the public of competitive rewards through his exercise of this power. Instead, the exclusive control that follows a monopoly is looked upon as not depriving the public of anything that it formerly had enjoyed. The courts do guard, however, the manner in which this new exclusive privilege is exercised in commerce.

Since a patent monopoly, regardless of its moral justification, may restrict or control competition, controversy has developed in squaring patent practices with the antitrust laws. Many of the most controversial antitrust suits have involved questions of patent rights. Most of the arguments arise less out of the direct interpretation of the patent right itself than out of questions arising in connection with the exercise of this right and the transfer of privileges to share in this right to others. There seems to be little disagreement over the fact that a patent does grant to the recipient the right to exclude others from making, using or selling his item; the law grants him a legal, limited monopoly, excluded from the antitrust laws to this extent. But, out of this arise many contractual agreements and market arrangements that are tied in with the patent rights, but are completely outside the scope of the patent law and come under the scope of jurisdiction of the antitrust laws.

These arrangements come for special antitrust significance if they are associated with such practices as attempts at monopolizing or restraining trade. The important issue then becomes, not the monopoly that the grantee enjoys, but rather his market performance as a result of this right. For example, most of the Supreme Court cases that have involved patents are concerned with such market performance and structure as price maintenance and the elimination of competition by the patentee and his licensees, as related to vertical competition with others or horizontal competition with non-licensed vendors in the same lines of commerce.

Since the declared objective of the patent laws is to promote the progress of the sciences and arts by granting a type of monopoly privilege to the inventor, it is reasonable to expect that the recipient might reap financial rewards in exercising this privilege. He may surrender fully his rights to others by selling his patent grant or he may surrender only a part of it in the process of selling wares that embody the patented article. His monopoly right vests in his ownership of the patent privilege. Once he sells this right outright, however, he may not attempt to control the use or disposition of the patented goods. Thus, aside from the legal right granted through price maintenance laws, the owner of a patent who has sold his patented goods to another cannot insist on price maintenance by his buyers in their future re-selling activities. The courts have agreed generally that the inventor has received the full protection of the law when he is protected in his rights to use or sell the patented item and that this shield does not extend to determining the conditions of re-sale, once he has reaped the benefits of selling his original property right.

There is an erroneous common belief that a patent grants an absolute monopoly to the recipient and that he is free to exploit this concession to any extent that he desires. Even beyond the scope of legal entanglements, no monopoly short of state socialism is absolute. Each monopolist must consider a series of possibilities such as the demand for his products, the pressure of substitutes, the nature of potential competition, the possibility of alienating future demand, the lack of adequate market data, and the possibility of arousing interference by the government.²

The Supreme Court has attempted to assure that the patentee stays within the boundaries of his own private monopoly and does not extend this power beyond the statutory grant. It is the Court's belief that this is the way to secure for the public the maximum benefits to be derived from the patented goods. Even though the patent laws attempt to exclude patent privileges from the antitrust laws, the legal proceedings involving patents demonstrate clearly that patent law is required to co-exist ever so delicately with anti-trust law.

There are several important criteria of market structure and performance that the Supreme Court considers in adjudicating patent cases where the exercise of the patent right appears to

² William B. Bennett. *The American Patent System*, Baton Rouge, 1943.

have gone beyond the scope of the patent grant itself. An important guide is the elasticity of substitution between the patented item and competing products. (See *United States v. Line Material Co.*, 333 U.S. 282.) This goes far in determining the market share for the patentee. Since degree of substitutability affects the amount of competition, the ease or difficulty of substitution will influence the amount of monopoly enjoyed by the patentee.

Another criterion that has been used by the Court is the freedom of entry that exists in the generally relevant market. This freedom is related directly to the ability of competitive firms to offer reasonable substitutes on the market. There have been a number of cases in which this consideration was given important weight. (See *Standard Sanitary Manufacturing Company v. United States*, 226 U.S. 20; *United States v. General Electric*, 272 U.S. 476; *United States v. Masonite Corporation*, 316 U.S. 265; *Hartford-Empire v. United States*, 323 U.S. 386; *United States v. United States Gypsum Co.*, 333 U.S. 364; *United States v. New Wrinkle, Inc.*, 342 U.S. 371; *Besser Manufacturing Co. v. United States*, 343 U.S. 444; *International Business Machines Corp. v. United States*, 298 U.S. 131; and *International Salt Co. v. United States*, 332 U.S. 392.)

The Court has looked upon freedom of entry quite favorably even though the entrance of additional competitors may have the effect of unsettling the market and might even induce cut-throat competition. The Court appears to be fully aware that the economic power of size, coupled with the possible subsequent elimination of small producers, is one of the characteristics to examine. Even though the advocacy of a greater degree of workable competition may mean a lessening of the possibility of eliminating higher cost marginal producers and even a possible deterioration of quality because of cost considerations, the Court still looks with greater favor on a situation where enterprising ability and managerial talent are given the chance to function without restrictions instituted by patent monopolists. Although there may be many advantages to stable market structure and performance and to stable prices that might inure, the Court has been disposed to consider these advantages of lesser importance when they are achieved through price fixing, cross-licensing or other restraining exercises of patent powers.

It appears that the Court pays special heed to the idea of workable competition when ruling on patent cases, especially when a determination

must be made as to the economic power resulting from patent control. The role of patents in the relevant market and the consequent market structure have been important decision-making factors. (See *General Electric* and *Besser* cases.) Cross licensing practices were condemned as they were used to regiment whole industries. A slight departure occurred in the *National Lead Case*. (*United States v. National Lead Co.*, 332 U.S. 319.) In this case the Court reasoned that the market community could be served more efficiently by refusing to dissolve the large firms, and so it permitted business concentration to continue in the interest of serving the market in a better manner. Although there is something to be said about the advantages of large scale operations that may follow economic concentration, the Court has been firm in refusing to accept this line of reasoning if secondary effects include price fixing and restraints of trade.

The nature and extent of profits also has been taken into consideration by the courts in ruling on patent litigation, especially the question of whether new products and processes will be developed if patentees are restricted in the quest for greater profit ratios. A general feeling runs through the cases that, once a firm has been established, there would be less need for monopoly profits to induce the flow of inventions, particularly if the firm had a significant amount of excess capacity that might be reduced through exploitation of the patent. On the other hand, a different situation will exist, too, if the defendant is already in a dominant market position. It may be argued that the dominant firm might try to keep profit margins so low that potential competitors cannot enter the field, the leading firm looking at total profits and not just the rate of profits. A question of public policy is raised here. This low profit ratio may mean lower prices for the consumers. Intent becomes important in judging this type of action, as well as future action on the part of the company after the threat of potential competition diminishes.

In the 1949, *General Electric* case, for example, the Court found the company in such a dominant position that by reducing the price of lamps by two cents, it probably could have driven many of the smaller competitors out of business. Such economic power can exclude competition, and so becomes contrary to public policy that favors the free enterprise approach. The situation with reference to profits may work in the reverse, too, as the Court found in the *Hartford-Empire* and *Line Material* cases. (*United States v. Line Mate-*

rial Co., 333 U.S. 282.) Here, patent combinations were found to be illegal and one of the considerations was the intent to raise profit margins. The ability of the defendant to affect profit ratios is related directly to the capacity of others to produce reasonable substitutes even though differentiated in some degree. Still another factor is the degree to which the patentee can restrict the entry of others into the industry and prevent them from producing or selling similar products.

Competing patentees at times have formed patent pools through cross-licensing or other arrangements. Often these have been formed as a sort of defensive tactic, after each patentee has recognized that price cutting and other cut-throat tactics have been reducing their profit margins because of mutual retaliation. The courts have recognized, at times, the need for patent interchange. It might be that technological interdependence suggests a type of interchange as a device to spread knowledge and improve quality. Cross-licensing may help resolve otherwise costly patent suits. Although there may be these apparent advantages, any sharing scheme involves agreement and cooperation. When do such actions become restraints? If the objectives are restraining, then the arrangement easily may lead to anti-social restraints as argued in the *Hartford* and *Line Material* suits.

The courts have looked for guidance at the nature of market performance, whether it has been of the restraining or non-restraining variety. If objectives such as the following are ruling, the agreements tend to be held illegal; here we find efforts at price fixing, collusion, restraining entry, eliminating competition directly, regimenting an entire industry, or threatening litigation if others did not act in a specified manner. Agreements become illegal *per se* if the objective is to monopolize or restrain trade unreasonably.

It is not easy to determine in any specific case the extent to which patents have had the effect of promoting or estopping competition; there are so many subtle and vague ramifications. Cross-licensing may have the consequence of regularizing and stabilizing competition, but it also may throttle competition as well. Not all price fixing is condemned outright. Where such price fixing bears a direct relationship to the patentee's reward, there may be some exemption from the *per se* illegality. Even the report submitted by the Attorney General's committee on antitrust laws was not clear on the degree to which patents permitted any price fixing. The majority felt that there could be some cases where price fixing re-

lating to patented articles might not run afoul of the antitrust laws, but the minority could not agree that price fixing powers were necessary to generate the incentive to invent.³ The minority felt that a patentee was protected sufficiently when he was placed in a preferred position in the sale or license of his goods and that he did not need the further protection of setting prices.

The courts have recognized that under certain circumstances patents might generate competition. True, a patentee enjoys a monopoly. But this does not prevent competition from substitutes and others who seek to obsolete the initial patent by a newer invention. As price competition becomes more intense, substitute products may be introduced. But, even this possibility may be limited by the ability of competing firms to obtain patents. Many inventions do improve the efficiency of the productive process and reduce costs as well as improve quality. Those who do not have access to these improvements will suffer competitively. Even when the patent expires, the original patentee may still be in command because of the substantial position that he built up during the life of the patent.

In the field of patent interchange, competition might be furthered providing the available advantages of the patent are open to all on reasonable and equal terms. Under these circumstances, an interchange conceivably might promote, rather than restrict, competition. But a patent not in use certainly does not encourage any competition. (See *Hartford* case.) The antitrust laws are somewhat powerless in such a situation since non-use does not constitute a restraint in itself.

Through its various decisions and interpretations, the Supreme Court has brought about drastic changes in the structure of American patent law. In general, the decisions have narrowed the scope of the initial patent grant monopoly. The main reasoning has been the desire to protect the competitors. The patentee, because of his patent monopoly, certainly is not immune to the antitrust laws. The intent of the patent laws is to reward the inventor; no more. The patentee may use his property right himself or transfer it; but he may not go beyond the scope of his statutory grant. In exchange for this monopoly privilege, the patentee is supposed to make the fruits of his patent available to the public. The most commonly used economic analysis in the litigation involves the idea of elasticity of substitution. The broader the base of substitution the greater the latitude given the patentee.

³ The Attorney General's Report, p. 235.

Reporting the Lincoln-Douglas Debates

Ellis A. Johnson

IT WAS just about one hundred years ago that one of the most important debates in American history took place in Illinois. The impact of the exchanges between Stephen A. Douglas and Abraham Lincoln was so tremendous that it is quite conceivable that but for these seven debates American history might have run a far different course. Few people, however, realize that this campaign was as important in the development of American journalism as it was in crystallizing public sentiment around basic political concepts. The 1858 senatorial campaign was the first in which a complete series of political speeches was reported stenographically by newsmen on the scene.

When Lincoln undertook to make a scrapbook of the newspaper reports of the speeches three weeks after the campaign closed he had some difficulty in procuring back issues. He used the *Chicago Press and Tribune* reports for his own speeches, and the *Chicago Times* reports for those of Douglas. For background material he relied heavily on the *Illinois State Register* for Douglas material and the *Illinois State Journal* for his own. Completed late in 1858, the original Lincoln scrapbook is now in the Library of Congress; the first copies of its contents in book form were offered to the public about two months prior to Lincoln's nomination for the Presidency.

James B. Sheridan and Henry Binmore represented the *Chicago Times*, and Horace White wrote the running story for the *Chicago Press and Tribune*, while Robert Hitt took down the speeches stenographically for the same paper. All were pioneers in phonography, and the importance of their transcriptions cannot be overesti-

mated. While popular attention naturally centered around the two protagonists, a great deal of the real work of the campaign was done by the journalists on both sides. The most effective points of the speeches and debates were sorted out and driven home to the rank and file through the editorial page.

Billy Herndon's biographer perhaps overstated the case when he said that the tale of seven earth-shaking debates between mighty protagonists of conflicting principles might be good fiction but not good history. Yet Lincoln's law partner observed that, "Those men who will go 20 miles through heat & dust to hear speeches are [already] Democratic or Republican but those who will not go 20 rods to hear speeches are neither one way or the other." The crucial middle area and the fringe, indifferent or apathetic voters, were played for. As far as Herndon was concerned the northern counties were "all for Freedom" whereas southern Illinois was "pro-slavery and IGNORANT up to the hub." Between these extremes lay a belt of some 40 central counties of mixed political affiliations. Here were Republicans who Lincoln could count on, Americans of the Know-Nothing school, conservative Whigs who would hesitate before moving to either candidate, Buchanan Democrats, and anti-Lecompton Democrats sure to go for Douglas. The state of Illinois was "a peculiar one politically."

The press announced that the first grand encounter would take place at Ottawa, in northern Illinois, on August 21. It would be a battle between "the champions of Slavery and Freedom" in which "the gallant LINCOLN would enter the lists with DOUGLAS." The partisan orchestra was tuning up.

Everybody knew Douglas: short, thickset, a burly man with large, round head, heavy hair, dark complexion, and the bark of a fierce bulldog. Lincoln was very tall, slender, angular, and even awkward; his face was sharp and large-featured with deep-set eyes under heavy brows; a

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high forehead retreated into dark and heavy hair. "In repose," a reporter confessed, "'Long Abe's' appearance is NOT comely. But stir him up, and the fire of his genius plays on every feature." Strong in his own right, Douglas was skilled by "a thousand conflicts in all the strategy of hand-to-hand or a general fight."

After the debate, which held a crowd of from twelve to twenty thousand in the treeless, seatless Ottawa square for three hours, Douglas made his way through the enthusiastic crowd to his waiting train. The Republicans did not neglect their champion, and Lincoln was raised to the shoulders of two young farmers and carried off in spite of his remonstrances. Soon the newspaper reports of the proceedings were sent out:

THE DRED SCOTT CHAMPION [Douglas]
PULVERIZED
LINCOLN'S TRIUMPHANT VINDICA-
TION OF REPUBLICAN PRINCIPLES
THE GIANT SLAIN (Douglas was fondly
dubbed "The Little Giant" by his devoted
followers)
12,000 PEOPLE WITNESS THE ROUT OF
LINCOLN!
LINCOLN BROKE DOWN COMPLETELY,
AND HIS FRIENDS WERE OBLIGED TO
CARRY HIM FROM THE GROUND[!]
DOUGLAS LOOKED AND ACTED LIKE A
WILD BEAST
THE IMPALEMENT OF LINCOLN
DOUGLAS'S BODYGUARD OF IRISH PA-
PISTS [Mrs. Douglas was a Roman Catholic]
CHEERED INDISCRIMINATELY AT
ALL HE SAID

Owing to the extreme partisanship of the campaign there were immediate charges of unfairness in the reporting of the speeches. Each side accused the other of misrepresenting the ideas of the spokesman. The *Times* claimed to be literal in its reporting: if its version differed from that of the *Tribune* it was the Republicans' misfortune to "have a candidate for the Senate of whose bad rhetoric and horrible jargon they are ashamed, upon which before they would publish it, they called a council of 'literary' men, to discuss, re-construct and rewrite; they dare not allow Lincoln to go into print in his own dress; and abuse us, the *TIMES*, for reporting him literally." In rebuttal, the Lincoln forces claimed the *Times* made one hundred and eighty mutilations in their champion's address and concluded that "an action for libel would hold against these villains, and they richly deserve the prosecution."

Freeport was in the extreme northern part of the state and fifteen thousand were present as the subsequently famous "Freeport Doctrine" came forth under ingenious interrogation. The nation was informed that:

LINCOLN AIN'T PLEDGED TO ANY-
THING
LINCOLN ASKS QUESTIONS! LINCOLN
GETS ANSWERED
DOUGLAS ABUSES THE REPUBLICANS,
GET PAID OFF IN HIS OWN COIN:
AND GETS MAD ABOUT IT

It was observed after Douglas had threatened to bring Lincoln "to his milk" that "The Judge [the title by which Lincoln referred to Douglas when alluding to the finesse with which the Senator obtained what Lincoln considered a political appointment] does not appear, however, to be in the milky way just now." Some even reported that "The Dred Scott Champion" himself was "trotted out and brought to his milk."

The third joint debate took place in Jonesboro in September. From the heart of "Egypt" in the extreme southern portion of Illinois the candidates moved to Charleston, which lay on the eastern border of the vital center or fringe area. By early October they were at Galesburg, a bit to the north and far to the west. Douglas accused his opponent of shifting his principles from jet-black in the north through a decent mulatto in the center of the state to an almost white in the south. Lincoln countered that Douglas' speeches followed the current of the Ohio river in its southern course. Douglas hit again and again at the sectional character of the Republican Party. "No political creed," he thundered, "is sound which cannot be proclaimed fearlessly in every State of this Union." Lincoln accused Douglas of "blowing out the moral lights around us." If there was a wrong in slavery, no one had "a right to do wrong." Again one wondered if the newspapers were covering the same debates:

A FIELD-DAY FOR THE DEMOCRATS
LINCOLN RETREATS FROM EGYPT—
TRUMBULL [Former Democrat, then
Republican Senator] COVERS HIS
FLIGHT
GREAT ROUT OF THE DOUGLASITES
... KILLED, WOUNDED AND MISSING
LINCOLN STRIPS THE GIANT DRY
ABRAHAM TOSSED AGAIN

By this time both candidates felt the strain of one of the most rigorous campaigns on record.

(Concluded on page 242)

The American Labor Novel

George G. Dawson

EVEN authorities on American literature are often surprised to learn that some 160 labor novels have been published in this country. It is not possible to give an exact figure, not only because some obscure opus might still be undiscovered, but because of the difficulties in arriving at a definition of "labor novel." For purposes of this discussion, we shall define labor novel as a fictitious prose tale of more than "short story" length, published in the United States, dealing with the worker and his problems in industrial America.

But this does not solve the problem. Short stories, poems, and drama have been excluded, but we are still confronted with the task of determining which works fit the definition. A novel ought not to be included simply because it contains some episode about the labor movement, unless that episode is germane to the entire theme. Thus, Dreiser's *Sister Carrie* can not be considered a labor novel, even though it contains an excellent account of a famous trolley strike. The strike episode could have been omitted entirely without effecting a basic change in the development of the theme or of the characters. Labor problems, working conditions, a labor organization, a labor leader, or an event in labor history should constitute the main theme of the story. If these simply provide the background for a romantic tale or illuminate the temporal setting of a story, it might not be considered a labor novel. Yet, there is no precise way of measuring, either quantitatively or qualitatively, how much of a story deals with labor and how much involves some other topic.

Other books lie on the borderline between fiction and non-fiction. Hutchins Hapgood's *The Spirit of Labor* (New York: Duffield, 1907), for example, deals with an actual but unidentified labor leader and includes accounts of actual strikes. Some researchers list this as fiction,¹ but it can also be found on library shelves among

non-fiction histories of American labor. A similar case is Frank Harris' *The Bomb* (New York: Kennerley, 1909), an account of the Haymarket Riot. Harris uses the real names of the persons involved and closely follows the events as they actually happened. There is at least one important point, however, where Harris' version differs from all non-fiction accounts, and Harris himself stated that he used his imagination when he had no facts to go upon. This, in itself, might well justify the categorization of the book as a novel. Many of the stories deal with actual persons or events, often using the real names of people, places and organizations involved, or presenting them in such a way that their identities are unmistakable. (A "Eugene V. Debs" appears in one novel, for example.) In most of these cases, however, the authors depart from fact often enough to leave no doubt as to the fictional character of the story. Nearly all of the writers have taken liberty with history, distorting facts, interpreting characters to suit themselves, rearranging the order of events, and slanting the presentation in such a way as to support the writer's personal point of view. Some of the most grossly distorted accounts can be found in those novels in which the author claims to be presenting "the true facts as they actually happened."

But however one defines "labor novel," and however rigid or permissive one is in including literature within that category, there remains a fascinating plethora of books worthy of study. This is not to say that all, or even most, of the books are well written. On the contrary, much of the prose is turgid and dull, and many of the plots are too ridiculous even to be amusing. It is a chore bordering on sheer torture, for example, ponderously to plow through page after page of the pompous and prosy alliteration of Walter Hurt's *The Scarlet Shadow* (Girard: Appeal to Reason, 1907). But if one takes a microscopic

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¹ See *The Worker in American Fiction*, an annotated bibliography compiled by Virginia Prestridge (Champaign: Institution of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois, 1954). Hapgood's book is listed therein as a novel.

view of history, believing that all aspects of an era must be taken into account for a full understanding of it, the labor novel is deserving of attention. Imaginative literature reflects the attitudes, opinions, problems, and trends of the times, and the labor novel is no exception. As pure labor history the novels have little value, for nearly all of them fail to present a complete and objective account of the events with which they purport to deal. They do, however, run the full gamut of expressed opinion on the labor movement, and usually present events in labor history in connection with other problems.

The earliest American novel that might fit our definition is *The Factory Girl* by Sarah Savage, published in 1814. A worker is the leading character, and the New England textile industry provides the setting. The latest, as of this writing, is William Dale Smith's *A Multitude of Men* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1960), which deals with union activities in a steel company.

Typically, the novels omit little. Textile workers vie with miners for popularity as primary subjects, each constituting the major concern of at least 23 novels. Nearly every major type of employment is dealt with, from sharecropping to steel manufacture. Other favorite subjects are outstanding strikes or disorders. Mary Foote's *Coeur d'Alene* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1894) presents the employer's side of that conflict; James M. Martin, in *Which Way, Sirs, the Better?* (Boston: Arena, 1895), gives an anti-labor account of the Homestead Strike; and Cy Warman's *Snow on the Headlight* (New York: Appleton, 1899) is critical of union activities during the Burlington strike. The Colorado miners' strike of 1894 is described in Hamlin Garland's *Hesper* (New York: Harper, 1903); a number of great labor battles are crammed into Henry Mann's *Adam Clarke* (New York: Popular Book Company 1904); the Haymarket Riot dominates Charlotte Teller's *The Cage* (New York: Appleton, 1907) and Frank Harris' *The Bomb* (New York: Kennerley, 1909); and the Memorial Day massacre provides the theme for Meyer Levin's *Citizens* (New York: Viking, 1940). Many of the novelists took the liberty of combining two or more historical events into one, to serve some literary purpose. It is not unusual to find a story's hero being assigned a role actually played by someone else, as in Garland's *Hesper*, where the mine-owner protagonist engages in commendable activities in reality undertaken by union leaders or pro-labor politicians.

A few fictionalized biographies may be found among the novels. Eugene Debs is the subject of Irving Stone's *Adversary in the House* (New York: Doubleday, 1947); Gompers' life is described in Rupert Hughes' *The Giant Wakes* (New York: Borden, 1950); and Joseph Hillstrom ("Joe Hill") is the leading figure in Wallace Stegner's *Preacher and the Slave* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1950). Edward King's *Joseph Zalmonah* (Boston: Lee and Shepard, 1893) closely resembles the real-life Joseph Barondess of the United Hebrew Trades. Hurt's *The Scarlet Shadow* is not a biographical novel, but Haywood and Debs appear therein as heroes and are accorded a considerable amount of space.

Most of the authors of the labor novels are little known, at least to modern students. The most familiar writers are Sherwood Anderson (two labor novels), Hamilton Basso, Daniel C. Beard, Howard Fast, Hamlin Garland, Zane Grey, Frank Harris, Meyer Levin, Charles M. Sheldon (two novels), Upton Sinclair (three novels), F. Hopkinson Smith, John Steinbeck, and Irving Stone. Sinclair's *The Jungle* is probably the best known labor novel. Although *The Jungle* is noted for its startling effect in arousing the public and the government to demand sanitation reforms in the meatpacking industry, the author's stated purpose was to inform Americans of the plight of the workers in the Chicago area.² Sinclair's less famous labor novels are *King Coal* (New York: Macmillan, 1917), and *Little Steel* (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1938).

The labor novels do not fit neatly into preconceived categories, and any attempt to divide them into "pro-labor" and "anti-labor" works will meet with frustration. Some sympathize with the working class but oppose unions, some approve of unions *per se* but criticize strikes and other typical union activities, while others smile upon particular unions and labor leaders while vehemently disapproving of others. Nearly all express some sympathy with the workers of America, although the sincerity of many writers is open to question. Most of the novelists at least give lip service to a concern for the working man and his problems. One of the most notable exceptions is Lily Long's *Apprentices to Destiny* (New York: Merrill and Baker, 1893), which paints the worker as stupid, ignorant, and bestial, and concludes that attempts to improve the lot of the workingman are futile and undesirable.

² See the introduction to the Viking Press edition, 1946.

Although the majority of the books sympathize with the workingman's problems, there is vast disagreement as to the primary cause of his distress and what may be done to ameliorate conditions. In F. Hopkinson Smith's *Tom Grogan* (Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1896) the worker is oppressed by unions and union leaders; in King's *Joseph Zalmonah* vicious sweatshop owners are the villains; while society as represented by the police is blamed for the workmen's woes in Harris' *The Bomb*. The cruel exploitation of children in southern cotton mills is graphically described in John Moore's *The Bishop of Cottontown* (Philadelphia: John C. Winston, 1906) and Marie Van Vorst's *Amanda of the Mill* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1905). But whereas the former makes no mention of organized labor, proposing employer paternalism as the answer to the problem, the latter is decidedly favorable to unionization.

It is particularly interesting to compare two novels which deal with the same events or persons. Charlotte Teller's *The Cage* and Frank Harris' *The Bomb* can both be considered pro-labor, but their versions of the Haymarket Riot are markedly different. Miss Teller finds the bombing to be an abominable deed, while Harris lavishes the most elaborate praise upon the bomb-making Louis Lingg and upon the anarchists who preached violence. *The Bomb* is one of the very few novels condoning violence as a weapon of labor. Harris depicts the mysterious Rudolph Schnaubelt as the actual thrower of the Haymarket bomb, and Schnaubelt and Lingg are the heroes of the story. Not only does Harris bitterly condemn the police (this, of course, is not without reason), but even the more mild of the anarchists, such as Albert Parsons, are criticized. The real names are used in *The Bomb*, while Miss Teller's characters are given fictional names. The villain of her story, however, is Lingg, for the description fits too closely to be mistaken. In short, Charlotte Teller proposes that the worker advance himself by organization, economic strikes, and political participation, while Harris seems to favor the direct and violent seizure of power.

The setting for Arthur Eddy's *Ganton and Co.* is the same as that of Sinclair's *The Jungle*, but the approach is very different. Eddy concedes that the beef trust is evil and that the worker is badly treated by the employer, but unions and their leaders are far more vicious. Sinclair was not primarily concerned with unionization, finding political action through Socialism to be the

answer to the worker's problems. But the beef strike is presented in *The Jungle* entirely from labor's point of view. Eddy, on the other hand, finds that unions are as much to blame as cruel employers for the plight of the workingman, and that "unionism is rotten" (p. 217). The protagonist of the story is a young employer who attempts to improve working conditions by fighting both organized labor and predatory capitalism. The hero's speech to his union workers is perhaps the longest and most bitter indictment of unionism to appear in any of the labor novels (pp. 227-228).

Those writers, such as Walter Hurt and Upton Sinclair, who urge worker participation in politics are balanced by novelists who consider the working-class person totally incapable of accepting political responsibility. Chief among them is Harry P. Robinson, whose *Men Born Equal* (New York: Harper, 1895) is entirely concerned with proving that only corruption and misrule can result when the "scum" (p. 205) of union labor becomes involved in politics.

Surprisingly, a large number of the labor novels avoid over-simplified dichotomies. For example, Leroy Scott's *The Walking Delegate* (New York: Doubleday, Page, 1905), although basically favoring unionism, depicts an internal union struggle wherein an honest labor leader battles a corrupt and ruthless business agent for control of the organization. The good and the bad among both leaders and rank and file are fairly well balanced in this story, but of course the honest leader prevails. Most novels expressing disapproval of unions also disapprove of labor leaders and vice versa. But there are a few which do not follow this pattern. Although primarily anti-union, Grace Cooke's *The Grapple* (Boston: L. C. Page, 1905) speaks favorably of John Mitchell because of his conciliatory policies (p. 95). A similar case is Cy Warman's *Snow on the Headlight*, in which "Eugene V. Debson" appears briefly as a kindly and forgiving soul (p. 166-167). On the other hand, there are novels presenting a favorable picture of the labor leader but finding something other than unionism to be the means of obtaining justice for the workingman. This is true of Hurt's *The Scarlet Shadow*, and the two novels by Charles M. Sheldon, *His Brother's Keeper* (Boston and Chicago: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society, 1896) and *The Crucifixion of Philip Strong* (Philadelphia: Henry Altamus, 1900). Hurt favors the Socialist Party while Sheldon offers a

type of Christian Socialism, with labor problems being handled by the church.

As might be expected, most novels approving of unions *per se* also approve of labor's most vital weapon, the strike. (This excludes novels expressing approval of company unions, such as Martin's *Which Way, Sirs, the Better?*) Most novels unequivocally opposed to unionism also oppose the strike as a labor weapon. There are many, however, which do not disapprove of unions *per se*, but find them useless in solving labor problems. These works usually express sympathy with the aims of unions, but offer some other means of achieving those aims and oppose the strike as a futile or too costly method.

The novels mirror the trends of their times. It is not surprising that very few labor novels were written before the Civil War, when America was basically an agricultural nation. Savage's *The Factory Girl*, 1814, is probably the only ante-bellum book that can be classified as a labor novel. At least 50 appeared between 1862 and World War I, a time when America was becoming urbanized and was taking a position of world leadership in industrialization. The violence, disorder, conflict, and great surge of union organization occurring during this period are reflected in the novels. Only three labor novels were published during the 20's, but the Great Depression again brought a tidal wave of industrial and labor fiction, some 60 novels being published in the decade 1930-40. Only 12 were written during World War II (1941-1945 inclusive), the American novelist obviously turning his attention toward world problems. About 30 have been published since World War II. At least 13 of the post-war novels, however, have not taken contemporary (since 1941) labor problems as a theme. The post-war books dealing with contemporary issues cover a variety of topics, but at least five stress union organizing activities. A satire on union racketeering was published in 1949, Henry Von Rhau's *Fraternally Yours* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin). This theme will probably appear again in labor novels; television and motion picture writers have already used it profitably.

The novels conform to many trends in American thought. Social Darwinism can be found in many of the novels of the 1890-1910 period. Outstanding among these is John F. Carter's *The Destroyers* (New York and Washington: Neale, 1907), in which survival of the fittest appears to be accepted as the only means of solving labor

conflicts. Carter's hero is a mine owner who has fought his way up from the pits and who finds himself engaged in a battle with workers. Traditional morality has nothing to do with the case, and the protagonist wins because he is more brutal, ruthless, underhanded, and clever than his stupidly vicious employees. This is neither right nor wrong, Carter seems to imply; it is simply the order of existence.

Religion plays a leading role in many of the pre-World War I books, both sides claiming the support of the Almighty. Many of the anti-union novelists of the 1890-1910 period describe union leaders and workers as lacking in religious and spiritual values, while the employers and non-union workers support the church. In F. Hopkinson Smith's *Tom Grogan*, for example, the priest comes to the defense of the poor working woman who is harassed by union "bummers." In Sheldon's books, on the other hand, the church is on the side of labor, union leaders are depicted as being deeply religious; irate workers are calmed by the singing of the Salvation Army, and a merger of church and trade-union is proposed. One character in *The Jungle* goes so far as to refer to Christ as the first trade-union carpenter.

Attitudes toward immigrants and Negroes also manifest dominant trends. Again, the 1890-1910 period is most worthy of note. All of the stereotypes about immigrant groups can be found in the labor novels of that period. As a rule, the immigrant of Anglo-Saxon origin is accepted, while southern and eastern Europeans are pictured as a menace to American society. Although Sinclair's *The Jungle* and King's *Joseph Zalamonah* (dealing with Jewish garment workers) are notable exceptions, the novels describe non-Anglo-Saxons as inherently inferior to white Americans. In Henry Rood's *The Company Doctor* (New York: Merriam, 1895), workers are judged almost entirely on the basis of their national origins. Slovaks and Italians are described as dirty, ignorant, disgusting, treacherous, filthy, ill-smelling, bestial, repulsive, vicious, and uncivilized. They are called rabble and scum, and it is said to be impossible to educate or reform them. Although vitriolic attacks such as these might make the modern bigot blush with shame, they fit neatly into the pattern of fear of the immigrant that one finds in the America of that day. Even some of the novelists who were sympathetic toward one type of immigrant would

(Concluded on page 238)

Selecting a Social Studies Textbook

Byron G. Massialas

TEACHERS and administrators are constantly asked to recommend books for purposes of adoption by state textbook commissions. When an educator acts in such a capacity, he is performing a function of great significance both to his school and to society.

On many occasions, selection of textbooks has taken place on the basis of rather superficial and not properly thought out criteria. For example, teachers have been known to recommend a textbook for adoption merely on quantitative bases: if it had many pages, "a thick book," it would be good; if it had few pages, "a thin book," then it probably would not be a good one. Frequently, too, the more topics the author dealt with, the more names of kings and battles, and the more chronological charts there were, the more desirable the text was considered to be. This attitude is reflected in a common expression most of us have heard at one time or another. "Oh, this is a remarkable text; it covers so much!" Another widely used criterion for selecting textbooks for school use has been their over-all appearance—whether they were attractive to the eye, whether the print was large enough and clear enough, whether there were a number of pictures (preferably in color), and whether the maps were detailed and comprehensive enough.

The writer is of the opinion that the above and many other similar criteria do not constitute valid and reliable bases for choosing a social studies textbook. Since the textbook used in the classroom plays a major role in instruction, the writer believes that it is our main responsibility to try to provide some educationally sound and pragmatically oriented criteria. Here are some questions that a committee on textbook adoption should be asking:

1. Does the author have an all-encompassing conceptual framework which gives direction and

purpose to his book? For example, does he say that history follows patterns, that man has constantly sought to live in organized societies, that human behavior is subject to prediction and control? Does he make his frame of reference explicit?

2. Does the author base his content on clearly stated or inferred principles or generalizations? Does he relate these ideas or principles to the events and episodes that he narrates? For example, does he show how the idea, *when two different peoples come in contact with each other and exchange their beliefs, values, and artifacts, cultural change takes place*, has validity in fact? Does he produce only relevant information, or does he include data that has no relationship whatever to the problem under consideration?

3. Does the author provide opportunities for the student to question various observations and related interpretations of social phenomena, or does he stifle creative and imaginative thinking by purporting to furnish all the "right" answers?

4. Does the author make a conscious effort to apply the scientific method to his work? Does he tell his readers where he found his evidence, what conflicting evidence exists, what measures he has taken to reduce his biases, what criteria he used to select the topics to be examined, and what more needs to be done in the various areas of human knowledge?

5. Does the author speak to the given age level of the students? Does he use ill-defined terms and ambiguous words? For example, does he frequently use such phrases as "strong leader," "good society," "effective government," "bad economy," with no effort to establish some common communicative grounds?

6. Is he inconsistent and contradictory? For example, does he refer to the Middle Ages as the "Dark Ages," and then proceed to enumerate and describe medieval Byzantine and European achievements in the arts, the sciences, religion, and government?

7. Does he offer an annotated bibliography for the students? Does he suggest paperback titles which the student can easily acquire as he becomes interested in certain topics? Does he tell

The author, Instructor in Social Studies in the University School of Indiana University, here suggests criteria for teachers to keep in mind when they are selecting social studies textbooks.

the student where to find detailed statistical information and maps?

8. When the author introduces certain ideas and generalizations, does he produce related information drawn from studies of other societies and cultures? Is he over-emphasizing the Western World to the detriment of the Non-Western?

9. Does the author avoid discussion of value-loaded questions? Does he deal with current controversial issues, indiscriminately providing all possible sides to a problem? For instance, does he examine issues such as segregation, sex, labor-management relations, birth control, delinquency?

10. Does the author employ data from all social science disciplines or is he relying upon one only? Does he make an obvious effort to relate the past with the present, the historical with the sociological?

11. Does the writer provide a manual for the teacher, and in this manual, does he give a brief analysis of his work, stating his objectives clearly? Does he provide a more elaborate and scholarly annotated bibliography for the teacher's use? Does he offer any constructive suggestions for tests; for example, tests which would measure certain skills and attitudes beyond the traditional achievement tests?

The above list of questions is by no means complete; there are many more questions to be added; some, perhaps, peculiar to the given community and ability level of the students. Nevertheless, the author contends that if administrators and teachers would begin to evaluate textbooks on the basis of these and related criteria, they would reinforce the trend toward quality instruction and, in the long run, help make the dream of reflectively-oriented textbooks a reality.

THE AMERICAN LABOR NOVEL

(Continued from page 236)

paint a disagreeable picture of another type. Traces of this can be found even in *The Jungle*. The Negro appears only rarely in the early novels, but his status is usually that of an inferior being who poses a threat to intelligent, honest, clean, white labor. There is, of course, a marked difference in the modern novels dealing with Negroes. William Attaway's *Blood on the Forge* (New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1941) is a tale of Negro steelworkers with a psychological frame of reference; Fannie Cook's *Mrs. Palmer's Honey* (New York: Doubleday, 1946) deals with Negroes active in the CIO; and Chester Himes' *Lonely Crusade* (New York: Knopf, 1947) is another psychologically oriented story, involving a Negro organizer.

Changing standards of morality are also reflected in labor fiction. The Victorian writers condemned lack of courtesy, drunkenness, marital infidelity, sexual promiscuity, and lawless behavior. No extenuating circumstances were recognized. The books of the 1900-1910 period, however, reveal a relaxation of rigid Victorian codes, and some show strong signs of rebellion against prevailing mores. By 1910, some of the labor novelists, although not condoning drunkenness or vice, were finding them to be symptomatic of social ills and not necessarily indicative of inherent evil in the individual. The drunkard in

Marie Van Vorst's *Amanda of the Mill*, 1905, is the victim of circumstances over which he had no control; the prostitutes in Sinclair's *The Jungle*, 1904, are innocent pawns of an oppressive social order. Anarchists, of course, oppose nearly all social values, and the heroes of Hapgood's *Spirit of Labor* and Harris' *The Bomb* engage in free love, violence, and lawlessness.

Too numerous even to mention are the manifold facets of American life depicted in the labor novels. By no means can the teacher use labor fiction alone to convey to his students the facts of the American labor movement. Nearly all of the novels are biased and lacking in scholarly objectivity, and none are so badly distorted as those claiming to tell the pure truth. But as expressions of American sentiment on every conceivable aspect of the labor movement the novels have great value. A good exercise in historical research for students at the secondary school and college level would be to have them compare one of the novels with accounts of the same events as found in non-fiction sources of high reliability. The books might also be valuable in propaganda analysis. As mirrors of their times, the novels do present a comprehensive view of the American industrial scene, and they picture labor in the context of the problems, traditions, ideals, and trends of the periods in which they were written.

Developing Reading Skills and Critical Thinking

Mary Witt

INCREASING attention is being given to developing means through which students can be stimulated to think critically. One of the accepted means is intensive instructional procedures in the classroom. The experiment here described undertook to provide a program of guided reading with a two-fold purpose: (1) To improve skill in drawing conclusions from written materials; and (2) to develop other reading skills.

SUBJECTS AND MEASUREMENTS

A group of four boys and six girls of superior ability (median I.Q. 120) who had completed the seventh grade were selected to participate in this study. The California Achievement Test results were used to select the members of the group. The median of their language scores was 9.5 grade, the reading median was 9.9 grade, and the median age was 12 years, 11 months. Except for one girl, the students were selected from a group with whom the teacher had worked during the previous year in a two-hour social studies-language arts period.

The summer school session consisted of a four-hour daily program over a period of six weeks. Each student selected, or was invited by a teacher to participate in, at least two or as many as four one-hour periods each day. Thus, the ten students in this group spent one hour daily in the social studies classroom, the time being devoted to a concentrated effort (1) to deepen their understanding of selected concepts of our historical background and (2) to improve their reading skills as they worked with material concerning our social heritage. It is the means to the end and the degree of success in the effort expended with which the remainder of this article is concerned.

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Two types of measures were used at the beginning and again at the end of the six-week period. The first of these was a standardized test of reading skills. In the first week of school, Form Am of the Iowa Silent Reading Test-Advanced (9-12 grades) was administered. From Bm of the same test was given in the last week of school.

The second type of test used was a teacher-made device designed to assess abilities to draw conclusions and to select reasons upon which conclusions should be formulated. The teacher had selected ten books depicting basic concepts of our democratic background which each student was required to read. A test composed of ten selections, one from each of the selected books, was prepared by the teacher. Four true statements of varying degrees of understanding followed each selection. The students were asked to choose the conclusion which they thought was best, and underneath it to write their reason for the choice they had made. This same test was administered in the first and in the last week of school.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

In general, the required books were read outside of school, thus leaving the class period for instructional purposes. In addition to the required books, a number of books of similar content were made available to the students for free reading. From this collection, 17 different books were read by members of the group.

Some techniques by means of which skills in reading and critical thinking were developed include:

1. Reading for speed and comprehension
 - a. The students read for one minute, circled the last word read at the end of one minute, then completed the selection. (This is the method used in the Iowa test.) Reading was followed with a check for comprehension.
 - b. The students read a complete article as found in the *Advanced Readers Digest Skill Book*. Each student checked his own speed and completed selected exercises to evaluate his comprehension.
 - c. Each student read five minutes, using the required

book he was reading at that time. Ideas read were summarized in a group discussion which followed.

2. Reading to develop critical thinking
 - a. Exercises from *Art of Efficient Reading*
 - (1) To identify main ideas
 - (2) To evaluate main ideas
 - (3) To distinguish propaganda techniques
 3. Group reading and discussion to identify and develop ideas stated in the test on the required books
 - a. "Next to independence, the character of Washington is our greatest legacy." (James T. Adams, *Epic of America*, p. 318.) The teacher read aloud selections from Jeanette Eaton's *Leader by Destiny* to amplify the above quotation. In the discussion, other sources from which the students were reading were quoted.
 - b. Common Man
 - (1) As seen by Thomas Jefferson. Quotations on the four panels of the Jeffersonian Memorial portraying his thinking on public education, slavery, religious freedom, and change were read and discussed. *Your Washington* was the source used for this reading.
 - (2) As seen by Andrew Jackson. Jackson, the first "Westerner" to become President of the United States, thought that every person should vote, and every person should be eligible to hold office. The selection used to picture this idea was a first-hand description of Jackson's inauguration as President. (Paul Angle, *The American Reader*, p. 210-212.)
 - c. Pioneers
 - (1) As seen in people like Ethan Allen and Daniel Boone. These were the true pioneers who were always seeking a new frontier to explore.
 - (2) As seen in the Whitmans. They represent those who went first in the Westward Movement.
 - (3) As seen in the permanent settlers. Many examples from the books and other sources familiar to the students depict the movement westward by settlers who went to make their homes and to seek new opportunities in life.
 - d. American Characteristics
 - (1) Optimism
 - (2) Individualism
 - (3) Independence and self-confidence
 - (4) Belief in success—everyone expected to attempt anything necessary for "getting ahead"
 - (5) Intellectual traits such as practical, inventive turn of mind; grasp of material things; restless, nervous energy; and exuberance of a free people
 4. Writing
 The students wrote short articles on some of the topics discussed, such as religious freedom and respect for people as displayed by Penn and Pike in their dealing with the Indians.
 5. Reading of poetry and short story
 Mimeographed copies of the following poems were read and studied both for meaning and appreciation: "Pioneers! O Pioneers!" by Whitman, and "Daniel Boone" by Guiterman. "The Outcasts of Poker Flat" was read to the class at the request of one student who brought a book from home containing Bret Harte's stories. (The students readily grasped the idea that in time of crisis, there is something good even in "outcasts." However, they were constantly comparing this story to present-day television western stories, stressing the fact that on TV the "outcasts" would have been rescued.)

Skills in reading were stressed during the first two weeks, and some time each day in the following weeks was devoted to the further development of skills. By the beginning of the third week each student had read several books which enabled him either to have renewed or developed an interest in the concepts being explored. However, on the basis of observation, reading and discussion appeared to be the most profitable technique used in the latter part of the session. Many related ideas were presented in these discussion periods.

SUMMARY STATEMENTS

1. Each student read the ten required books.
2. Each student read at least one of the supplementary books, while some read as many as 12 of them.
3. In general, the students were consistent in answering the questions on the teacher-made test in that their reasons given for answers chosen developed the ideas of their choices.
4. In a few instances, the reason given for a choice explained the correct answer rather than the one chosen. For example, two students checked the incorrect answer for the Whitman selection. However, they each stated that the Whitmans did what they started out to do. Two students checked the "Respect for People" item incorrectly. Their statements explained how Pike gained the friendship of the Indians by his friendliness and his kind treatment of the Indians.
5. As seen in the tabulated results of the tests, six students improved in their scores on the teacher-made test, three regressed, and one (the highest-scoring member of the group) remained the same. There was an increase of 11 points in the total class score.
6. In giving reasons for choices made in the teacher-made test, the July answers contained specific facts and examples cited from books which had been read. The June answers, to a great extent, reflected the student's opinion in a generalized statement or statements such as "This is what the paragraph said."
7. The two students who made the lowest scores on the teacher-made test in June each made a gain of four points on the July test, and each gained about two grades in the Iowa test. During the previous school year, one of these students read many books; the other read little more than class requirements. Both are considered immature.
8. Nine of the students showed a gain in their July median scores over their June median scores

in the Iowa test. The tenth student made a slight regression in his median score. This student increased in speed from 204 in June to 225 in July, but dropped in comprehension from 190 in June to 168 in July.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Measurable gains in reading as found through the use of the Iowa Silent Reading can be made to occur in a brief period of time by means of intensive instructional procedures in the classroom.

2. Major outcomes of critical thinking are difficult to capture in objective test items. They are to be found in certain behaviors which ordinarily have no objective measure. However, an over-all improvement in choices and expression of reasons did occur.

3. Development of such concepts as were stressed in the study is a cumulative process. Hence, time is significant and gains over a short period of time might be expected to be small.

IMPLICATIONS

The effectiveness of such a study as the one presented cannot be evaluated objectively. It does have value in (1) the illustration it provides in motivating a group of capable students to high achievement, (2) a stimulus to other teachers to adapt such a study to the formulation of another experiment, and (3) in pointing up the need for classroom instruction in developing concepts in social studies. As nontextual reading is centered on ideas, an opportunity is provided for students to lay a firm foundation for a generalized conception. This conception can be formulated into words by these students. And since it does have a fairly strong basis in the experiential background of students, the concept can be used by the students as a guide to behavior.

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THE LINCOLN-DOUGLAS DEBATES

(Continued from page 232)

The recording newspapermen, too, knew the strain of heat, dust, bad food, little rest, and a constant grind. Lincoln and Douglas were part of an American show, an exciting recreation for many thousands. They traveled the state far and wide, addressed countless crowds, met local leaders, and maintained exacting campaign schedules.

The Quincy debate was held on the western border of the vital center on October 13. The proceedings were given national coverage now; since the Freeport encounter the national press was interested in every word taken down by the busy stenographers. A Massachusetts journal commented that Douglas was "too near the dipper," and a St. Louis paper asked if he did not "whet his whistle" frequently to keep his courage up. It was recalled in Kentucky that the Senator had enjoyed many a convivial cup, or, more accurately dipper, at Abraham Lincoln's store, and a Louisville editor judged that if Douglas "has been a gross sinner, Lincoln has been a 'Grocer.'"

The *Illinois State Journal* called the Old Whigs to turn out and give "your old Champion, ABE LINCOLN, the 'tall sucker' a hearing for yourselves." (Illinois, is nicknamed the Sucker State.) They did at Alton, in southern Illinois, for the last joint debate. Both men brought their campaigns to a close on a high level of reason. It was here that Lincoln referred to the eternal struggle between right and wrong in prophetic terms; here Douglas eloquently defended popular sovereignty and appealed for party unity.

In a vote exceeding that of the 1856 presidential election by many thousand, the Republican State Ticket was elected by a narrow margin, but the old apportionment law favored the Democratic southern districts. The *Illinois State Register* cried, "Glory to God and the Sucker Democracy" because Douglas men held a majority

of the Legislature which would elect the Senator from Illinois. The *Illinois State Journal* claimed that gerrymandering elected Douglas "for the reason that 754 voters in 'Egypt' are an offset to 1000 in 'Canaan.'"

The candidates were on friendly terms throughout a very illuminating campaign, but if they generated most of the light the newspapers furnished plenty of heat. Lincoln and Douglas addressed large audiences of average citizens in simple terms and presented issues with striking vigor and clarity. The editors made the most of their opportunity to select, emphasize, and draw their own conclusions from the stenographic reports of the speeches. The candidates showed a remarkable degree of consistency magnificently combined with astute political acumen. The newspapermen, drawing upon this wealth of material, influenced a much wider audience. It was a "first" in American journalism.

Lincoln, disappointed but not disheartened by defeat, was glad he had made the race. He had gained a hearing which he could have had in no other way and set about making his scrapbook of the newspaper reports of the speeches. The *Missouri Democrat* of St. Louis referred to the campaign in the person of a good German friend: "Dese Dooglis men ish like to hail; it make terrible clatter, but when you go out it ish few and scattering. The Lincoln men—they like te snow, vich come down so still I no hear it; but I go out it ish all over te ground. Jist so." And so it was. In 1860 it was Republican Lincoln and Democrat Douglas again, this time for the Presidency of a deeply divided nation. With John Bell and John Cabell Breckinridge running on Constitutional Union and Southern Democratic tickets respectively and no single party representing the nation as a whole, Abraham Lincoln won enough northern states to become President.

Curriculum Materials

Stanley E. Dimond and Jonathon C. McLendon

Civics and Government

Annotated by Stanley E. Dimond

University of Michigan

Developing a Structure for Problems of American Democracy. Sarasota, Florida: Jean V. Marani, 1960. 11 p. (no price given). Riverview High School.

An interesting point of view toward the problems course is presented in this memorandum to teachers. This point of view—that problems studied should come from the pupils, parents, and teachers—is described, followed by a statement of six goals and a description of the scientific method as applied to the teaching of the course.

To gain a wider perspective in planning the course a survey was made of students in Grade 11, their parents, and the high school faculty. The common, persistent problems which might serve as the basis for the problems course were solicited. Brief summaries are presented for each group. The combined results provide the base for planning the structure of the course. The main groupings discovered were: Democratic Government, Community Living, Vocational Preparation, Economic Understanding, Personal-Social Development, Intergroup and Intercultural Relations.

Proposed Minnetonka Secondary Social Studies Curriculum. Excelsior, Minnesota: Minnetonka School District No. 276, 1959. 100 p. (no price given).

This curriculum guide sets a high standard. Brief, realistic statements on philosophy and objectives, scope and sequence, and the place of current events comprise the first three chapters.

A twenty-page chapter on teaching skills is ably done. The analysis of skills into sub-parts with suggestions for grade level placement is a helpful contribution.

Suggestions on grouping and on relations with other departments are noteworthy. For example, under a three-

level system of grouping, specific suggestions are made concerning variations in teaching the different groups.

The grade level placements, with accompanying course descriptions, present some interesting innovations. World history is required for Grade 11 with attention being given to areas other than Europe. American history is required for grades 9 and 10. Grade 9 deals with American history to 1877 with emphasis on Constitution and government. Grade 10 deals with the period from 1877 with emphasis on economics.

In Grade 7 the content is geography. In Grade 8 there is a social studies course with emphasis on educational and vocational guidance, local and state government.

Grade 12 introduces a variety of courses with students required to choose two semesters of social studies. The offerings are: Contemporary American Problems; Twentieth Century Politics; Area Studies of the Far East, and of Russia; Consumer Economics; Human Geography; Selected Ancient Civilizations; and Advanced Placement Courses for American History and European History.

This is a thoughtful, imaginative, well-developed curriculum guide.

World Communism: A Selected Annotated Bibliography. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1958. 20 p. (no price given).

Some 200 references on communism are given in this bibliography which was prepared by the Library of Congress for publication by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. Works by scholars, observers, and former Communists are included. A few references are to novels. The annotations vary from two dozen to 200 words. The references are valuable for teachers and advanced secondary school pupils.

Money and Banking in the American Economy. Washington, D.C.: Weldon Welpling, 1960. 104 p. (50 cents). Council for Advancement of Secondary Education.

Written by an authority in the field, this booklet can be aptly described as a unit-text. Eight brief chapters are devoted to aspects of the money and banking system: I. How Society Uses Money; II. The Currency System; III. Bank Deposit Money; IV. Bank Operations; V. Creation and Destruction of Deposits; VI. Control of Bank Reserves; VII. Price Levels and the Value of Money; VIII. Controls Over Money.

This is the second of a series of annotated lists of selected curriculum materials prepared for *Social Education* by members of the NCSS Curriculum Committee. This project was initiated under the chairmanship of Jean D. Grambs, and is being carried on by the present chairman, Stanley E. Dimond.

Readers are urged to send curriculum materials not reviewed here to the Washington office, attention of Merrill F. Hartshorn.

At the end of each chapter there is a one-page study guide consisting of thought questions, vocabulary words, and a reference for further study. The writing is clear and understandable by senior high school students. While

the visual aids are inadequate, the apt illustrations of the writer offset this defect. The unit should achieve the aim of presenting essential understandings in the area of money and banking.

Programs 7-12

Annotated by Jonathon C. McLendon
Northwestern University

Living Together in Today's World: A Curriculum Guide for Secondary Social Studies; Grades 7-12. Wayne, Michigan: Wayne Community School District, 1959. 152 p. (no price given).

Course outlines for each grade consist of a brief statement of purposes, nature, and emphases, followed by a brief outline of the major topics of subject matter. This guide is mainly a series of sample resource units. In order of grade level, these units include Western Europe, Union of South Africa, and South America (Grade 7); immigration and two world wars (Grade 8); transportation (Grade 9); Soviet Union (Grade 10); Slavery (Grade 11); political parties (Grade 12); and Australia (Senior High geography). Each unit outline suggests basic objectives, introductory activities, major topics and generalizations, study activities, resources (including types of sources and specific materials), and concluding activities. The unit plans contain numerous practical and imaginative ideas.

Social Studies: Grades 7-12. Hartford, Connecticut: Victor E. Pitkin, 1959. Curriculum Bulletin Series No. XII. 52 p. (no price given). State Department of Education.

This single-author bulletin suggests ideas intended to aid improvement of the high school social studies curriculum. Notable exceptions to the national pattern in courses proposed include (1) a ninth and tenth grade sequence in European and Asian civilizations, as alternative to community living and modern civilizations, and (2) such elective courses as Africa, the Orient, ancient history, and consumer economics. The basic course for each grade is described by discussion of suggested emphases for each of several units. Separate lists of persons for biographical study in American history and in non-American civilizations provide useful bases for selection. An appended list of library books identifies a range of carefully selected works including easy-to-read popular works, challenging though difficult volumes for gifted students, standard references, biographies, specialized works, and general surveys.

Social Studies Courses: Junior and Senior High Schools. Hammond, Indiana: Hammond Public Schools, 1959. 145 p. (no price given).

Introductory pages list the courses and units for grades 7 through 12. Course offerings are similar to nationally prevailing practices, but notable variations include the eighth grade (a year of U. S. history to 1870 and a semester of citizenship); Grade 9 (a required semester of Eastern Hemisphere geography and an elective semester in the Western Hemisphere); and Grade 12 (a semester each of government and economics required, with occupations

and "The U.S. in the World Today" as one-semester electives).

Half the guide comprises a detailed outline of the eighth grade American history. Included are such materials as objectives, types of activities, instructional materials, review questions, names and dates, and notable quotations for each unit. Briefer outlines indicate objectives, chief topics, and major references for the courses in world history, geography, and government. The eleventh grade course in U.S. history (beginning with Reconstruction) is not outlined in detail.

Secondary Curriculum Guide: Social Studies. Findlay, Ohio: Hancock County Public Schools, 1958. 105 p. (no price given).

The introductory material in the bulletin contains a discussion of classroom activities with emphasis upon student use of learning materials. This introductory material also includes suggestions for developing reading and other study skills, information to aid in teaching international understanding, suggested publications for a classroom reference shelf, and individual and group projects for superior students.

For the most part, the specific courses reflect the national pattern. One exception is the eighth grade course, which recommends both state and American history. Each course outline presents brief lists of objectives, suggestions for evaluation, lists of books and other instructional materials, and sample activities, including numerous projects.

Some of the course outlines include additional helpful suggestions. For example, the outline for the seventh grade geography course contains proposals designed to promote international understanding and examples of methods for organizing and teaching the course.

Senior High Program: Social Studies. Hamilton, Ohio: Hamilton City School District, 1959. 93 p. (no price given).

The guide is devoted chiefly to outlines of the three courses typically offered in grade 10 through 12. Each outline stresses subject matter, includes statements of objectives, questions to aid in evaluation, and a bibliography.

A "skeletal outline" of major topics for the world history course is recommended as indicating the minimum material for slow learners, while a more detailed outline (with the same major topics) is presented which includes additional information to be selected for appropriate students. The extensive outline for the eleventh grade verifies reasons for titling the course "American History and Government." Political history predominates, with special attention given to the Constitution.

Thirty pages of appended material present information for teachers.

Political Indifference Examined

Jay W. Stein

IN AN effective democracy the element of citizen responsibility implies the largest possible measure of political participation. Perhaps more than any Presidential campaign in recent years, the Kennedy-Nixon campaign in the fall of 1960 brought to the high school and college generation the persuasive message that everyone eligible should and must take an active interest in politics, at least to the extent of taking time to vote.

An appropriate question for social studies classes to consider and discuss is why people refrain from active participation in the political process. Why do individuals avoid running for office, joining a club, voting at the polls, or merely keeping informed? An instructor may first try to list as many reasons as he can. He may also find it interesting as well as informative to check his own reactions against those of the students in his classes.

This kind of cooperative class endeavor has much adaptability and appeal. It can be combined with "research" through reading or interviews as the instructor may wish. It is not apt to engender any "break-through" in knowledge, but the class has the feeling that it is contributing to fresh insight and calling attention to little-regarded aspects of the question. Students will feel a sense of creativity and request continuation and repetition of the procedure. Something of a competitive spirit arises when consideration of the question is taken up by other classes in the same subject. One will be impressed by the extensive coverage of the results from a general class consideration of a carefully phrased question. Last fall, instructors in the Citizenship Program of the Maxwell School of Syracuse University presented brief introductions to the problem of political participation in a democracy, asked the students to think about the topic, and then to

answer two specific questions at the next class meeting.

As Freshmen in their first semester, the students had only a limited introduction to college life, some less than a month. Their views were still largely those held in high school, and in many student replies the evidence of excellent high school teaching in the social studies was unmistakably clear. Moreover, their opinions inevitably reflected the views of their instructors and the reading they had done at the university.

The students responded to the questions with a refreshing measure of sincerity and spontaneity. They were encouraged to make their answers as brief as possible, but to list as many as they could. The freedom and openness of this procedure and the possibility of varying interpretation made the task of categorizing and tabulating the responses difficult but far from impossible.

The participants included 303 men and 423 women, a total of 726, largely from New York and surrounding states, but some from as far away as Florida, Georgia, Texas, Montana, Puerto Rico, Canada, and Germany. No particular pattern was, however, revealed by correlation of replies with geographical or other characteristics. Moreover, the replies were not from a sufficiently large sample to draw any widely significant conclusions or interpretations. The chief value of the "survey," it is emphasized, lies rather in its significance for class discussion, its appropriateness to class objectives, the impressive interest and enthusiasm of the participants, and the quality and scope of the lists they prepared.

The questions were: (1) From your own experience and observations in and out of school, list as many reasons as you can for the indifference of people to politics. (2) In your opinion, is this indifference a serious problem for effective democracy? Much of the follow-up discussion related to explanations of why or why not the indifference might be serious.

The following tabulation groups the replies to question 1 under major headings, listing the reasons in order of frequency of mention. It also provides a representative sample of the replies given by the students.

In addition to teaching in the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University, Dr. Stein serves as Administrative Associate, Office of the Vice President for Academic Affairs.

QUESTION 1

REASONS GIVEN FOR THE INDIFFERENCE
OF PEOPLE TO POLITICS

1. *Individual helplessness.* (Men 133; Women 226; Total 359.) Sample replies: "What can be done by a single vote isn't worth the trouble." "It is only one in a haystack." "It can do nothing to change the government." "It has no value." "Politics are indifferent to a single vote." "Politics has no place for a newcomer." "No chance for preferred party or candidate to win." "Tried once but became discouraged." "What will happen will happen."

2. *Remoteness of politics from personal affairs.* (Men 107; Women 203; Total 310.) Sample Replies: "Individual citizen is not directly affected or concerned." "Politics offer no help for his problems." "People are materialistic and will do nothing that doesn't pay them cold cash." "Man is a selfish animal who acts only for immediate and handsome rewards." "Politics offers no security." "So long as he is doing O.K., he doesn't care who is in political office." "They have never known the effect on their lives of being without the politics of democracy and freedom." "Local politics are closer to home but they are unimportant." "National politics are geographically distant." "Politics are for people in Washington."

3. *Inadequate information on candidates or issues.* (Men 113; Women 194; Total 307.) Sample replies: "Propaganda thrown out by party candidates tends to confuse voters and mask real issues." "Poor newspaper, magazine, radio and TV coverage of issues." "Campaign speeches are too boring to inform effectively." "Newspapers are filled with bias and withhold information."

4. *Preoccupation with other affairs.* (Men 108; Women 172; Total 280.) Sample replies: "Too busy to take time to be informed on either candidates or issues." "Too many personal problems." "Completely absorbed in other troubles." "Women, especially, are too busy."

5. *Suspicion of political leadership and the two-party system.* (Men 102; Women 166; Total 268.) Sample replies: "Politicians and parties are more interested in selfish power than in the best government or the people's welfare." "Politicians seek office only to make a living or to get rich." "Politics is a mere contest between power groups which do not involve the voter." "Politics are run by unscrupulous bosses and machines." "All politics are bad." "Politics are crooked, dirty business."

6. *Lack of intelligence, understanding, or education.* (Men 81; Women 128; Total 209.) Sample replies: "Many are illiterate." "No appreciation of role as American citizen or workings of democratic government." "Issues may be known but are not understood." "Unawareness of importance of active politics." "Schools do not stimulate interest in politics." "Course offerings are dull." "Politics, especially foreign affairs, are too complex." "Do not know how to enter politics or how to participate with intelligence." "Anti-intellectualism." "Prejudice."

7. *Laziness.* (Men 79; Women 113; Total 192.) Sample replies: "Just do not care." "Don't want to bother." "Leave politics for others with more energy and drive." "Merely to vote is a supreme human effort and even national sacrifice for most people." "General lack of responsibility."

8. *Candidates, parties and programs are equally desirable or undesirable.* (Men 61; Women 95; Total 156.) Sample replies: "Candidates have about the same qualifications." "Political parties are about alike in their views on major issues." "Don't like either one." "Either party is trustworthy in its aim to help America and preserve democracy."

9. *Politics are run well without wide participation.* (Men 41; Women 67; Total 108.) Sample replies: "Political leaders are doing a good job without me." "Politics can be readily handled by an above average person alone." "The men who are in politics have all they need in their qualities of being educated and wealthy." "Decision-making is a politician's job, not mine."

10. *Fears of various kinds.* (Men 26; Women 33; Total 59.) Fear of appearing conspicuous or ridiculous, of feeling guilty about an unwanted outcome, of the other party, of reprisal from government or associates, of expressing one's own views or a new idea, of the conformist trend, of the voting machine, of the red tape involved.

11. *Embarrassment over taking sides which would yield discredit from people on both sides.* (Men 21; Women 21; Total 42.)

12. *Family tradition of indifference.* (Men 16; Women 17; Total 33.)

13. *Disagreement with American form of government; preference for fascism, communism, pacifism, etc.* (Men 13; Women 7; Total 20.)

14. *Legal restrictions, such as in the South or in the District of Columbia, or such as age.* (Men 2; Women 11; Total 13.)

15. *Religion and other affiliations.* (Men 7; Women 5; Total 12.)

(Concluded on page 249)

Using the Historical Method in the Elementary School

J. D. McAulay

TOO OFTEN, the elementary-school child has never come to realize that the social studies is an organized field of human inquiry. He has moved romantically from era to era and from locale to locale without ever coming to grips with the rigorous method of the historian. But the successful social studies teacher *does* give the child an understanding of the historical method through the use of several techniques which weave and knit, integrate and continue the social studies into an historical pattern. The following suggestions may prove helpful to the teacher who is looking for guidance along these lines.

1. The biographical, personal, or great-man technique can be used, mainly in the primary grades, to develop historical method. Here the child is given a broad basis of understanding that events have a somewhat continuous flow from one historical personality to another. When celebrating the birthdays of Lincoln and Washington, the teacher can relate the life and ideas of one President to those of the other. She can indicate that the dedication of Lincoln was indirectly the result of the dedication of Washington. Similarly, President Jackson can be related to Daniel Boone, Alexander Graham Bell to Benjamin Franklin, and so on. The teacher can develop an understanding of the continuity and interaction of history by pointing out the interdependence of great historical figures.

One way to illustrate such interdependence is to stretch a cord along the blackboard ledge. As each historical personality is discussed, his (or her) picture is attached to the cord in the correct time sequence with other personalities the class

has studied. Beside each picture, a short statement (the composition of which is adjusted to the age and reading level of the children) indicates the contribution that personality made to the ongoing concept the class is developing. This concept may be "kindness to others," or "helping the nation."

2. A second approach to the historical method, one that is perhaps best suited to the upper grades—particularly the sixth grade—is the idealistic or spiritual technique, which relates history to the spiritual forces which have molded human society. Older children are better able to trace this persistence of an idea back through time.

Take, for example, the idea that all men are created equal, an idea upon which our American democracy is based. The emphasis upon the quest for freedom can be common to each unit studied—initiated with the unit on the Pilgrims, repeated in the unit on the Continental Congress, emphasized in the unit on the War Between the States, and re-emphasized in the final unit dealing with the First World War. By carrying the theme of "freedom" through each of these units, the teacher can relate the course of history to the devotion to a spiritual ideal.

A "Freedom Ladder" will be helpful in developing this concept. Each rung of the ladder is represented by a national historical event or episode which strengthened or enforced the cause of freedom. As the year progresses, rungs can be added to the ladder in their proper order—Jefferson, quill in hand, in Independence Hall; Washington at Valley Forge; Lincoln at Gettysburg; etc. Such a ladder will give continuity to the social studies content.

3. The technological or scientific technique might be most appropriate for developing the historical method at the third and fourth grade level. Third and fourth grade children are interested in things.¹ Thus it would seem most

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¹ Ralph C. Preston. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1958-1959.

suitable that the social studies for these grades emphasize the technological continuity of man's history and develop the theory that attributes human progress to scientific and technological advances. In the third grade, where social studies units are devoted mainly to contrasting cultures, children should gain an understanding of how communities change with improved machinery. In a unit on the farm, the children can compare the plentiful food diversity supplied by America's advanced technological methods of farming with the small food yield of India's primitive farming methods.

A third or fourth grade unit on transportation can help children to understand the social changes caused by improved railroad locomotives, or airplanes, or automobiles. Such a unit could include the composition by the class of a frieze, or panel, illustrating some of the historical methods of transportation, tracing its progress from the use of human energy (the sedan chair) to animal energy (the dog, horse, oxen), and so on to evolving machine energy. Pertinent social changes caused by each new form of transportation should be the background of the frieze.

4. A fourth suggestion for developing the historical method is through the economic school of thought which contends that man's social institutions and culture are in large measure a result of the prevailing type of economic processes in society. This particular type of development is suitable to the fifth and sixth grades. The content of the social studies for the fifth grade is centered mainly upon the United States. In the unit on the original 13 colonies, children should come to understand that the colonies were in the debt of the Mother country and dependent upon her for manufactured goods. A unit on the westward movement should emphasize the economic changes brought to the nation because of the western expansion. Children should be able to explain how the gold rush in California, the silver findings in Nevada, affected the economic life of the nation. In units on the modern South, or the Northeast, or the Pacific Coast, industrial change as well as national industrial interdependence can be stressed. In each of these units the economic processes help to explain the prevailing social institutions and culture.

In the sixth grade, social studies content centers around units on Canada, Mexico, and Latin America. Here, too, the teacher can illustrate the historic developments in economic processes. Canada's great industrial development, Brazil's economic revolution, Mexico's growing middle

class, all are economic movements presently changing cultures. Through the organization of charts and graphs sixth-graders can follow the trend of economic processes in these nations. One graph could compare Canada's present power production with that of a decade, two decades, three decades ago, and an animated chart could illustrate the corresponding social changes. Through the preparation of such charts and graphs, the children will gain an understanding of how economic change alters culture.

Fifth- and sixth-grade children are aware that much of the earth's population is in the throes of economic change and evolution.² They can be helped to understand the continuity of the economic thread through social and national development.

5. A knowledge of the physical setting in which human events take place is essential to an understanding of man's actions. Through the social studies the child learns to relate the continuity of human events to the physical setting; he realizes a geographical structure is necessary for man's activities. The development of this concept should be initiated in the first grade and continued in every grade in the elementary school throughout the entire social studies structure. The first grader can understand that in the home the kitchen has a different function from the living room, and, therefore, his behavior in each is somewhat different. A second grader can understand that, because of the physical setting, activities on a farm differ from those in a city. A third grader can appreciate that human behavior on a South Pacific Island is far different from that in an Alaskan village. A fourth-grade child can realize that the people of Switzerland, because of their similar geographical setting, have occupations like those of the Norwegians. Fifth graders can compare the activities of people in the prairie states with those of people in the mountain states; those of people in the Mississippi Valley with those of people living along the Pacific Coast. In a comparison of man's activities throughout the Americas, a sixth grade child can realize why those of the Canadian tundra dweller differ from those of the tropical American. Children can comprehend the geographical reason why the Pilgrims settled where they did; why the westward moving people chose the trails they traveled. Geography gives fabric, continuity, and form to the social studies and

² J. D. McAulay. "Social Interest of 10 and 11 year olds." Monograph. 42 pages. Penn State University, 1960.

often gives meaning to historical movement.

6. A sixth technique of establishing continuity through the social studies is by means of the sociological method which implies that a knowledge of man's activities in groups is fundamental to the proper interpretation of history. This technique explains history through the reaction, movement, change, adaptation, or decay of the group process. In the primary grades this technique can be applied to the family or community group. The child understands that, by his own action, one member of the family or the community affects the entire group. The third and fourth grade child realizes that in a community unlike his own, there are common identity groups. The child of the fifth and sixth grade should know that nations develop because of the activity of a group within a certain geographical structure. He should begin to comprehend that the history of a particular people begins with a nucleus of Frenchmen or Englishmen or Spaniards, which is continuous and evolving, ever changing, ever dynamic.

Such understanding might be illustrated through the preparation of murals or freizes which depict the changes and development of a group of people through a particular historical period. One mural might trace the evolution of a modern community from an Indian village to a modern industrial center; another might depict the changes in Mexico City from the time of Hernando Cortez to the great capital it is today. The children involved in the preparation of such murals would learn that social groups are continuous. They would understand that often history has moved through group action—that a group, such as the Pilgrims, through their persistence and loyalty to an idea, founded

a nation. Moreover, they would come to realize that they themselves are each members of a group which was formulated before their time and will continue after their departure.

7. But perhaps the social studies in the elementary school best develops a structure for history through a synthesis of all those techniques here described. Since the historical development of any age is dependent upon multiple causative factors, perhaps the eclectic or synthetic technique of teaching the historical method is the most valid. Thus, in a sixth-grade unit on Canada, the child should see the historical continuity of Canadian leadership from John A. MacDonald to John Diefenbaker. He should understand the evolutionary transfer of Canadian energies from an agricultural economy to a technical one. He should realize Canada's unique geographical position in the Atlantic triangle of Canada, Great Britain, and the United States, and how this position has affected her trade and cultural developments. Too, he should know how the French Canadian group has affected Canada's aesthetic and political life. In this unit the child will have been exposed to several techniques, each of which illustrates an historical method. Such techniques might be continued through units on Mexico and Brazil.

The teacher must not allow the social studies to become a stew of unrelated episodes wandering from topic to topic or from unit to unit. She can, and should, give an historic structure to the social studies through a deliberate attempt to establish a pattern of continuity. The social studies can have a pattern, and the child can gain, on his maturity level, an understanding of the cohesion of human history and its laws of cause and effect.

POLITICAL INDIFFERENCE EXAMINED

(Continued from page 246)

16. *Little appeal to the aging.* (Men 4; Women 6; Total 10).

17. *Little appeal to youth.* (Men 3; Women 4; Total 7).

18. *Location not convenient for participation.* (Men 1; Women 2; Total 3).

19. *Unintentionally forgetting or "not getting around" to vote, attend meetings, etc.* (Men 1; Women 1; Total 2).

20. *Escape from world strains by avoiding politics.* (Men 1; Women 1; Total 2).

QUESTION 2

IS THE INDIFFERENCE OF PEOPLE TO POLITICS A SERIOUS PROBLEM FOR EFFECTIVE DEMOCRACY?

	Men	Women	Total
Yes	187	309	496
No	75	48	123
Yes and no	41	66	107
	303	423	726

Notes and News

Merrill F. Hartshorn

The Committees of the NCSS

The continuing work of the NCSS is carried on by the committees to which specific responsibilities are delegated. Most of the accomplishments of the Council are the direct result of the work of numerous committee members who freely serve in the best professional spirit.

The Council's committees fall into three categories: committees of the Board, standing committees, and *ad hoc* committees. Until the fall of 1958, all committee members, with the exception of *ex officio* members, were appointed by the President. A change was made in appointment policy, however, and the President-Elect now names the necessary new members and new chairmen to standing committees for the next year. Both new and old committee members are authorized to participate in committee sessions at the Annual Meeting.

Each committee reports its year's work to the Board of Directors and to the membership at the Annual Meeting. In addition, standing and *ad hoc* committees report regularly to the Committee on Committees. Interim and special reports sometimes appear in *Social Education*.

Members of the committees of the Board and *ad hoc* committees are appointed for the term of one year. Most of the standing committee members are appointed for three years, with the expiration of appointments staggered. In some cases, upon recommendation of the Committee on Committees, a committee or an individual committee member may be reappointed to preserve continuity relating to a special assignment.

On behalf of the Council, the President extends thanks to those members who, with loyalty to the Council, have accepted the responsibilities of committee membership.

COMMITTEES OF THE BOARD

The responsibilities of the various Committees of the Board of Directors pertain directly to the functioning of the Council as an organization. For this reason, membership on most of these committees is drawn largely from Board personnel, both past and present.

BUDGET

The Budget Committee has the responsibility of studying the financial status of the Council and recommending to the Board the next annual budget. Final determination of the budget and its adoption is a function of the Board of Directors.

Eunice Johns, Wilmington (Del.) Public Schools *Chairman*

Henry C. Borger, Jr., Clark University

Shirley Engle, Indiana University

Jean Fair, Wayne State University, Detroit

Elmer Pflieger, Detroit Public Schools

Emlyn Jones, University of Wisconsin, *ex officio*

S. P. McCutchen, New York University, *ex officio*

COMMITTEE ON COMMITTEES

The Committee on Committees was created as an on-going review board to supervise the operation of the NCSS committee structure.

S. P. McCutchen, New York University, *Chairman*

Beth Arveson, Wisconsin High School, Madison

Martha Stucki, Northbrook (Ill.) Public Schools

CONVENTION SITES COMMITTEE

This committee receives invitations from various cities desirous of serving as host to the NCSS convention, makes recommendations to the Board of Directors concerning these invitations. The Board of Directors makes the final choice of the Annual Meeting Site.

Jack Allen, George Peabody College for Teachers, *Chairman*

Howard H. Cummings, U. S. Office of Education

Victor Pitkin, Connecticut State Department of Education

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Executive Committee consists of the President and two Board members appointed by the President. The committee serves as an interim board to deal with routine matters between Board meetings. When major decisions are necessary, the committee polls the Board.

Emlyn Jones, University of Wisconsin, *Chairman*

Stella Kern, Chicago Public Schools

S. P. McCutchen, New York University

STANDING COMMITTEES

Standing Committees of the NCSS are established and named by the Board of Directors and exist for an indefinite period of time. These committees deal with aspects of social studies education that need the continuing attention of the Council's membership. The number indicates the year in which a member's term expires.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM

This committee considers and recommends concerning such aspects of academic freedom as seem appropriate to the Council.

- Henry C. Borger, Jr., Clark University, *Chairman* (1961)
 Leo Alilunas, State University of New York, Fredonia (1963)
 Cecelia Anderson, Syracuse (N.Y.) Public Schools (1962)
 Mary Barber, Northbrook (Ill.) Public Schools (1962)
 Nadine Clark, Evanston (Ill.) Public Schools (1963)
 William Eagan, University of Notre Dame (1962)
 Lawrence Haaby, University of Tennessee (1961)
 Simms McClintock, Crossett (Ark.) Public Schools (1963)
 Arch Troelstrup, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo. (1961)

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

The Committee on Audio-Visual Materials and its specialized sub-committees bring to the attention of the membership significant developments in this rapidly expanding field. It also conducts experiments in this area.

- John P. Lunstrum, Indiana University, *Chairman* (1963)
 John Barlow, Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana (1963)
 Miles Beamer, Detroit Public Schools (1963)
 Beryl Blain, Indiana University (1961)
 Henry C. Borger, Jr., Clark University (1961)
 Madolyn Brown, Dade County (Fla.) Public Schools (1962)
 Ryland W. Crary, University of Pittsburgh (1961)
 C. W. Engelland, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute (1963)
 William B. Fink, State University of New York, Oneonta (1963)
 W. Kenneth Fulkerson, Rochester (N.Y.) Public Schools (1961)
 William H. Hartley, State Teachers College, Towson, Md. (1961)
 Robert Holmes, New Albany (Ind.) Public Schools (1963)
 Leonard Ingraham, New York City Public Schools (1963)
 Manson Van B. Jennings, Teachers College, Columbia University (1961)
 Wana McDole, Seattle Public Schools (1963)
 Balkom Reaves, Pascack Valley (N.J.) Regional High School, Hillsdale (1961)
 Lewis Paul Todd, Editor, *Social Education* (1961)
 William G. Tyrrell, State University of New York, Albany (1961)
 Stanley P. Wronski, Michigan State University (1963)

COMMITTEE ON CITIZENSHIP

The Committee on Citizenship studies special programs for children and youth sponsored by schools or carried on in cooperation with schools. It studies means of cooperating with governmental and private agencies which have goals of social studies teaching in the area of preparation for citizenship. It proposes suggestions for the development of needed teaching materials and surveys teacher education courses and workshops for both teachers in service and undergraduates.

- Max Klingbeil, San Fernando Valley State College, Northridge, Cal., *Chairman*
 Charles Adair, Florida State University
 Esther Alpers, San Francisco Public Schools

- Vernon Bouknight, Oakland (Cal.) Public Schools
 Eugene Cottle, University of Wyoming
 Karen Johnson, Wisconsin High School, Madison
 Omar Kussow, Madison (Wis.) Public Schools
 Raymond Smith, Hastings-on-Hudson (N.Y.) Public Schools
 Henry A. Wiatrowski, Springfield (Mass.) Public Schools

COMMITTEE ON COOPERATION WITH LEARNED SOCIETIES

The Committee on Cooperation with Learned Societies is charged with the improvement of working relations between the NCSS and other societies. It participates in the arrangement of joint sessions with other groups to be held at the respective annual meetings, informs the officers of other societies of the work of the NCSS, develops joint projects with these groups, encourages preparation of articles on the work and publications of various learned societies for use in *Social Education*, and fosters any other available forms of collaboration between the NCSS and such groups.

- Richard E. Cross, Stanford University, *Chairman*
 Wilbur B. Brookover, Michigan State University (American Sociological Society)
 Wilbur R. Jacobs, University of California at Santa Barbara (Mississippi Valley Historical Association)
 Preston E. James, Syracuse University (Association of American Geographers)
 Ben W. Lewis, Oberlin College (American Economic Association)
 John A. Schutz, Whittier College (American Historical Association)
 George Spindler, Stanford University (American Anthropological Society)
 William G. Tyrell, The University of the State of New York, Albany (American Association for State and Local History)
 James R. Woodworth, Miami University (American Political Science Association)

CURRICULUM COMMITTEE

The Curriculum Committee is responsible for the development of the Curriculum Series of bulletins published by the NCSS. It provides articles on curriculum for *Social Education* and cooperates on other publication projects involving curriculum improvement and trends.

- Stanley E. Dimond, University of Michigan, *Chairman* (1962)
 Kopple Friedman, Minneapolis Public Schools (1963)
 Jean Grambs, University of Maryland (1961)
 Walter Kops, Montclair (N.J.) State College (1961)
 Edward Krug, University of Wisconsin (1963)
 Donald Popham, Long Beach (Cal.), State College (1962)
 Norris Sanders, Manitowoc (Wis.) Public Schools (1962)
 Gilbert Wilson, George Peabody College for Teachers (1962)
 Helen Yeager, Cincinnati Public Schools (1961)

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES

This Committee has the responsibility, whenever and wherever possible, of establishing and maintaining contact with social studies teachers abroad. It is likewise the function of the Committee to foster activities promoting improved international understanding in this country.

- Martha Stucki, Northbrook (Ill.) Public Schools (1962)
Chairman
 G. Derwood Baker, New York University (1961)

Margaret Clayton, Jefferson County (Ky.) Public Schools (1963)
 Clark Gill, University of Texas (1963)
 Edgar Lichtenberger, Phoenix (Ariz.) Public Schools (1963)
 Helen Matsui, Oahu County (Hawaii) Public Schools (1963)
 Jennie Pingrey, Hastings-on-Hudson (N.Y.) Public Schools (1961)
 Allan A. Siemers, Wisconsin State College, River Falls (1963)
 Mary Sullivan, Seattle Public Schools (1963)

NOMINATIONS

The Nominations Committee prepares a slate of candidates for office to be presented to the Council at its annual business meeting, held at the time of the Annual Meeting. In the process of selecting nominees, the Committee consults the membership of the Council and welcomes suggestions concerning nominations.

Dorothy McClure Fraser, College of the City of New York, *Chairman* (1961)
 Florence Benjamin, Abington Township (Pa.) Schools, (1962)
 Edwin R. Carr, Orange County (Cal.) State College, Fullerton (1963)
 Helen Fairweather, Decatur (Ill.) Public Schools (1961)
 George H. McCune, University of Minnesota (1962)
 Ronald O. Smith, Portland (Ore.) Public Schools (1963)

PUBLICATIONS COMMITTEE

The Publications Committee carries out the Council's publications program. It invites the participation of authors, makes recommendations concerning the development of manuscripts, approves all manuscripts for publication, and, in general, supervises all aspects of the Council's publications program.

Harris Dante, Kent (Ohio) State University, *Chairman* (1961)
 Hall Bartlett, C. W. Post College of Long Island University (1963)
 William H. Cartwright, Duke University (1962)

RESEARCH

The Committee on Research was established by the Board of Directors at its 1956 meeting. The Committee is charged with furthering research in the teaching of social studies and recommending ways for making significant research in that field known to the profession.

Franklin Patterson, Tufts University, *Chairman* (1962)
 William W. Crowder, University of Arizona (1962)
 John Jarolimek, San Diego State College (1963)
 James H. King, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb (1962)
 Jonathon C. McLendon, Northwestern University (1963)
 Charles W. Merrifield, Alameda (Cal.) State College (1961)
 Carl Oliver, Tulsa (Okla.) Public Schools (1962)
 Robert J. Solomon, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J. (1963)
 Stanley P. Wronski, Michigan State University (1961)

TEACHER EDUCATION AND CERTIFICATION

The Committee on Teacher Education and Certification has as its purpose the development of standards which will contribute to the improvement of the prepa-

ration of social studies teachers and the dissemination of such findings.

Ole Sand, Project on Instruction, NEA, *Chairman* (1961)
 Dwight Allen, Stanford University (1963)
 William H. Cartwright, Duke University (1961)
 Hayes Davis, Seattle (Wash.) Public Schools (1963)
 Calvin Deam, Boston University (1962)
 Rita Emlaw, Western Reserve University, Cleveland (1963)
 Frank Estvan, Wayne State University, Detroit (1963)
 Joseph Grannis, Harvard University (1963)
 Adeline Howland, Mt. Vernon (N.Y.) Public Schools (1963)
 Mildred McChesney, New York State Department of Education, Albany (1961)
 Roy A. Price, Syracuse University (1962)
 Robert Risinger, University of Maryland (1962)

Ad Hoc COMMITTEES

Ad Hoc committees are appointed for the accomplishment of specific tasks designated by the Board or the President. Frequently the findings of an *ad hoc* committee lead to the establishment by the Board of a standing committee.

AIRBORNE TELEVISION

This *ad hoc* committee was appointed to survey the implications of airborne television for the teaching of the social studies.

Stanley P. Wronski, Michigan State University, *Chairman*
 Miller R. Collings, Cincinnati Public Schools
 C. W. Engelland, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute
 Lawrence Metcalf, University of Illinois
 Harold Negley, Indianapolis Public Schools

ELECTION PROCEDURE

This Committee is charged with studying the advisability of changing the nominating and election procedure now being used in the National Council and with making a report to the Board of Directors at the Chicago meeting.

Ralph W. Cordier, Indiana (Pa.) State Teachers College, *Chairman*
 C. W. Engelland, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute
 W. L. Gruenewald, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana
 Myrtle Larkin, Niskayuna (N.Y.) High School
 J. R. Skretting, Florida State University
 Clarence Stegmeir, Harvey (Ill.) Public Schools

NEWSPAPER WORKSHOPS

This Committee is charged with organizing workshops on the use of newspapers in social studies classes and considering the advisability of publishing materials coming from these workshops.

John H. Haefner, State University of Iowa, *Chairman*
 Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, NCSS
 Roy A. Price, Syracuse University
 J. R. Skretting, Florida State University
 Howard E. Wilson, University of California at Los Angeles
 Emlyn Jones, University of Wisconsin, *ex officio*

UTILIZATION OF TEACHER TIME

This Committee is to study the present utilization of teacher time in the social studies program.

Dorothy W. Hamilton, New Hyde Park (N.Y.) Public Schools, *Chairman*

Beth Arveson, Wisconsin High School, Madison
Charles DeWitt, Baltimore (Md.) Public Schools
Marie Edwards, Gary (Ind.) Public Schools
Ruth Ellsworth, Wayne State University, Detroit
Allen Y. King, Cleveland Public Schools
Isidore Starr, Brooklyn (N.Y.) Public Schools

JOINT COMMITTEE ON BUSINESS SPONSORED
SERVICES AND RESOURCES

This is a joint committee of representatives from the National Council and from business and industry. It is authorized to explore avenues of cooperation and to recommend a mutually advantageous program.

Jack Allen, George Peabody College for Teachers, *Chairman*

Representatives from NCSS:

Maud Austin, Roselle Park (N.J.) Public Schools
Edna Carter, Baltimore (Md.) Public Schools
Nelda Davis, Prince George's County (Md.) Public Schools

Robert V. Duffey, Temple University
S. P. McCutchen, New York University

Representatives from Business and Industry:

Harlan Miller, Institute of Life Insurance, *Vice-Chairman*

Robert C. Lusk, Automobile Manufacturers Association
Allison J. McNay, Standard Oil Company of California
George A. Reitz, General Electric Company
Julian Street, Jr., U. S. Steel Corporation
Tom Murray White, Glick & Lorwin, Inc.

41st Annual Meeting

The 41st Annual Meeting of the National Council will be held in Chicago, Illinois, November 22-25, 1961. Headquarters hotel will be the Morrison. The schedule calls for the House of Delegates to meet November 22, with Committee meetings on Thanksgiving Day, November 23, and the First General Session commencing at 8 P.M. that evening. Sessions will close on Saturday, November 25, at 4 P.M.

Nomination for NCSS Officers
for 1962

Once more it is time for the membership of the National Council for the Social Studies to be thinking about the election of officers and directors. The 1961 elections will be held in November in Chicago, Illinois.

The Board of Directors of the NCSS, after accepting the report of the Election Procedures Committee in 1954, voted that the following criteria recommended to the Board for the selection of nominees be considered advisory and not binding on the Nominations Committee:

"You need this book . . .

the only one of its specific kind in the world."

Allen Y. King

Directing Supervisor of
Social Studies, Cleveland
Board of Education.

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HANDBOOK
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281 The Arcade Cleveland 14, Ohio

The following criteria should be kept in mind for the selection of nominees:

1. Any nominee for the office of Vice-President should have served as a member of the Board of Directors at least one year prior to his nomination.
2. No person shall be nominated for the office of Vice-President who resides in the state where the annual meeting is being held, nor in any contiguous state.
3. The nominees for the office of Vice-President should have demonstrated leadership in the activities of the National Council for the Social Studies.

It has also been stated that no criteria, other than membership, should be established for positions on the Board of Directors, since this should be a testing ground for leadership.

It is requested that members of the National Council indicate to any one of the members of the Nominations Committee the names of members of the National Council who are, in their opinion, qualified to render distinguished service either as a member of the Board of Directors or as Vice-President. Be sure to include the following information about suggested nominees:



WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SUMMER SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS

CRAFTY MEN CONTEMN STUDIES, SIMPLE MEN ADMIRE THEM, AND WISE MEN USE THEM . . .

Sir Francis Bacon

Society expects educators to fit Bacon's description of wise men (and women). The Summer School is especially designed for such people, i.e., for mature, intelligent, serious students who have imagination and initiative. All courses emphasize searching and rigorous analysis of ideas and principles. Classes are small—the average enrollment is ten per section.

Wesleyan maintains the Graduate Summer School for the purpose of giving teachers and administrators an opportunity to extend their liberal education through increased command of their own and related subjects.

Students who wish to complete a coherent program for thirty hours of credit may become candidates for the degree of Master of Arts in Liberal Studies or for the Certificate of Advanced Study. Candidates and non-candidates are equally welcome.

CLASSES—JULY 3 to AUGUST 11

To receive a catalog please write:

Joseph S. Daltry, Director
The Summer School for Teachers
Wesleyan University
Middletown, Connecticut

(1) name and address; (2) educational position; (3) contributions to the work of NCSS and its affiliates; and (4) contributions to the field of social studies in general.

Such suggestions should be made as soon as possible, certainly before the first of November. The officers to be elected at the annual meeting in Chicago are President-Elect, Vice-President, and three members of the Board of Directors for a three-year term.

Send your nominations to any one of the following members of the Nominations Committee: Dorothy McClure Fraser, Division of Teacher Education, 535 East 80 Street, New York 21, N.Y., *Chairman*; Florence Benjamin, Abington Township Public Schools, Abington, Pa.; Edwin R. Carr, Orange County State College, Fullerton, Calif.; Helen Fairweather, Decatur Public Schools, Decatur, Ill.; George H. McCune, The General College, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis; and Ronald O. Smith, Portland Public Schools, Portland, Ore.

Middle States

The Middle States Council for the Social Studies will hold its Spring meeting on May 12 and 13 in Washington, D.C. Hotel reservations

should be made directly with the Sheraton Park Hotel. The sessions will be held on the uptown campus of The American University.

Samuel E. Burr, Jr., of the School of International Service of the University has planned a program centering around "Emerging Nationalism."

Arrangements are also being made to visit points of historical interest in the Washington area. Applications for school visitation on Friday, May 12, may be secured from William Jenkins, Board of Education Building, 3331 Prospect Street, N.W., Washington 7, D.C.

Muriel Hoover, William Jenkins, and Leonard Skinner assisted Dr. Burr in making program arrangements.

—Leonard S. Skinner

Puget Sound

The Winter Conference of the Puget Sound Council for the Social Studies was held February 16 at Ingraham High School, North Seattle. Mrs. John Empfield, Shoreline High School, chaired the meeting which was divided into three sections. Chairmen of the section meetings were Mrs. Belva McIntosh (elementary), Mary Sullivan (junior high), and Lou Ella Hart (senior high).

—Mary O. Sullivan

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Louis M. Vanaria

How many fruit pickers do we have in our organization? Did you know that it takes about 10 times as many man-hours to pick a ton of cherries as it does to pick a ton of apples, peaches, or pears? Save your energy. The American Farm Bureau Federation *Official News Letter* (425 13th St., N.W., Washington 4, D.C. \$1.50 per year) has "the answer." What you need is a tree-shaker. A tractor-mounted, hydraulically activated shaker (it has a boom with a claw at the end) removed 95 percent of the cherries from trees. The cherries left on the trees were undersized and lacked color and maturity. Speaking of trees, did you know that there are approximately 536,000 trees at curbside alone in New York City?

President Kennedy

The Department of State, Office of Public Services, has limited copies of President Kennedy's Inaugural Address in booklet form as well as his views on foreign affairs in an excerpt from the state of the union message. Both booklets are free on request from the State Department, Washington 25, D.C. Kennedy's *Economic Report of the President Transmitted to the Congress, January 18, 1961* (Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. 214 p. \$1) reviews the economy since 1946 and suggests policies for the future.

Choosing the President: Should the Rules Be Changed? (Center for Information on America, Washington, Connecticut, 4 p. 35 cents) is a timely addition to the "Vital Issues" series. From the same source comes *Metropolitan Areas—Problem or Opportunity?* The discussion is pessimistic of the possibility of consolidating and federating existing units of local government.

Public Affairs Committee

The Public Affairs Committee (22 E. 38th St., New York 16) celebrated its twenty-fifth year as publisher of concise, inexpensive pamphlets on social and health problems. The Committee is a

non-profit, educational organization established in 1935 in order to provide the average citizen with brief, readable booklets on the serious economic problems of that time. Over 30 million pamphlets have been distributed to date. Subject matter has broadened and the 300 titles already published deal with social and economic issues, problems in family life, health and science, and intergroup relations. Maxwell S. Stewart has been editor of the pamphlet series. And NCSS stalwart, Erling M. Hunt of Teachers College, Columbia University, is chairman of the Committee.

The Committee's most recent arrival is Robert L. Heilbroner, *Forging a United Europe—The Story of the European Community*, 28 p. 25 cents. If successful, the Community's experiment in integration will function economically very much like the United States. Member nations are Belgium, France, the German Federal Republic, Italy, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands.

Education and the Profession

The Education of Teachers: Certification is a summary of discussions from the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards Conference held last summer in San Diego. Free copies are available from the Commission, NEA, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Philip Jacobson, *Religion in Public Education: A Guide for Discussion* (American Jewish Committee, 165 E. 56 St., New York 22, 40 p. 75 cents) gives no ready-made answers, takes no sides, but does present the pros and cons of eight major issues: use of school premises by religious groups, teaching non-sectarian religion, Christmas in the public schools, separation of Church and State, government aid to education, moral and spiritual values, the Bible in the school, and released time.

Study Abroad (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. 21 p. 15 cents) summarizes the status of programs of group study

abroad as of 1959-60 and discusses objectives and problems of accreditation and evaluation of such programs. *So You're Going Abroad! Health Hints for Travelers* (same source, 2 p. 5 cents) is a "word to the wise."

Leonard S. Silk, *The Education of Businessmen* (Committee for Economic Development, 711 Fifth Ave., New York 22, 48 p. free) is a report on the current state of American education for careers in business.

International Relations

Hans A. Bethe and Edward Teller, *The Future of Nuclear Tests* (Foreign Policy Association-World Affairs Center, 345 E. 46 St., New York 17, 64 p. 50 cents) continues the Headline Series and permits two nuclear physicists to argue both sides of a controversial issue. Discussion questions and suggestions for further reading follow each presentation.

Virgil Salera, *U.S. Immigration Policy and World Population Problems* (American Enterprise Association, 1012 14 St., N.W. Washington 5, D.C. 37 p. \$1) argues that overpopulated and underdeveloped countries will be aided more by the United States through the exporting of private capital funds and industrial managers than through the widening of its gates to immigration.

National Continuing Responsibilities 1960-1962 (League of Women Voters, 1026 17 St., N.W. Washington 6, D.C. 22 p. 15 cents) consists of positions on national issues to which the League has given sustained attention and on which it may continue to act.

What Everyone Should Know About Foreign Aid (Channing L. Bete, Inc., Greenfield, Mass., 16 p. 2 to 100 copies, 10 cents each) is a scriptographic (words and pictures) presentation of the Mutual Security Program. Purposes, problems, and costs are explained in simple terms.

Facts on Communism, Volume II, The Soviet Union from Lenin to Khrushchev (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. 357 p. \$1.25) describes the emergence and growth of bolshevism-communism in Tsarist Russia, its seizure and power there, the transformation of the old regime into the Soviet Government, and the history of the Soviet Union during the past four decades.

Duplicated Visual Supplements

Using Stenafax stencils with duplication on Gestetner, an imaginative social studies teacher has been producing classroom teaching aids that can be useful and are inexpensive. Cartoons,

maps, charts, pictures, and other devices including TV programs such as "Our American Heritage" form the basis for classroom discussions. For NCSS members who desire specimens, send an adequately stamped self-addressed envelope to Dr. Jack W. Entin, 147-04 77th Road, Flushing 67, N.Y. He can meet requests up to 10 copies. His letterhead credits are a sight to behold.

The American Scene

COPE MEMO (815 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) reveals that the direct labor costs of a Falcon compact car, priced at the dealer's at \$1,546 amounts to only \$58—or 3¾ percent of the dealer price. The remainder of the car's production cost goes for material (\$994), transportation (\$79), manufacturing overhead (\$35), advertising (\$24), warranty (\$17), design costs (\$2), engineering (\$20) and amortizations of tools and "premieres" (unlisted). "It sure would take a really 'inflationary wage increase' to raise the price of a Falcon to the consumer." Space will be reserved in the next issue for management's reply—if any. *COPE MEMO* costs \$1 per year.

The Goals of Economic Policy (Economic Research Department, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington 6, D.C. 35 p. 50 cents) identifies five goals: to strengthen economic freedom, to promote over-all economic efficiency, to promote economic growth, to promote economic stability, and to improve economic security. But "unless we are careful, we may end up riding only one or two policy horses into the twilight away from free and voluntary capitalism."

Geography

Neal M. Bowers, *Hawaii—Crossroads of the Pacific* (A. J. Nystrom, 3333 Elston Ave., Chicago 18, Ill. 4 p. free) is part of Nystrom's "Around the World" series of publications describing how globes and maps can be used in teaching pupils some basic geographic relationships.

For those interested in helping young people to better understand Asia and Asians there are *Richer By Asia* kits of materials at \$2 each available from the Young Adult Services Division of the American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 11, Ill.

G. Etzel Pearcy, *Africa: Names and Concepts* (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. 9 p. 10 cents) discusses the nomenclature of Africa and is written by the Geographer of the Department of State.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Spanish Community Life. 15 minutes; color; sale: apply. Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood 28, California.

Here is a simple, realistic story of a farmer who lives with his family in a pueblo not far from Madrid. He loves his land and he describes his way of life with honest pride.

The film is introduced by a sequence on the early history of Spain, and some excellent maps show its far-flung empire. The heritage of occupation by the Moors is shown in scenes of castles and other remains.

The people of the little village which is visited in this film are poor. A dry spell upsets their economy and brings them to the point where they must live on credit extended by the local store. When rain comes, the farmers, who live in town, go out to work in the surrounding fields. The women do household chores, visit with friends, and attend church. The children spend as many days as possible in the village school, but sometimes they must stay home to help with the crops and animals.

Scenes which help American boys and girls to understand better the people of this Spanish village include the classroom shots, the children at play, a bullfight, and a religious parade. There is also a brief sequence showing how American overseas aid brings better roads to the village and a bus line connecting the people with Madrid.

Once self-sufficient, we see how the influence of nearby cities is changing rural life. Manufactured clothing, newspapers, radios, busses, and motorcycles are common sights in the pueblos; but progress is still very slow, and in many ways the villages remain primitive and unchanged. No one, for instance, owns an automobile. Community spirit is strong in Spanish villages. The people are fun-loving and friendly. Although poor, they find contentment and pride in their way of life.

Students will like the story which this film shows and, best of all, will want to learn more about the Spanish people.

Motion Pictures

If you have not had an opportunity to see some of the most recent Encyclopaedia Britannica Films (1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Illinois), you are missing a good bet. *Meet Mr. Lincoln* (originally an N.B.C. Television production) has met with good response in the classroom in the Civil War Centennial year. Some other E.B.F. films of note are *Eskimo Family*, an intimate insight into the day-by-day life of the Eskimo; *In Case of Fire* vividly demonstrates that lessons learned from fire drills can save lives in fire emergencies at school, at home, and at a crowded theater; *The American Flag*, featuring actual locations and dramatic events, documents the origin, growth, and meaning of our national flag; *The Philippines: Land and People* reviews the long history of the Philippines under Spanish and American rule and stresses the importance of the Spanish heritage of religion and of the American contributions to education and to improved standards of health and sanitation.

Other recent E.B.F. films include *The Industrial Revolution in England*, which traces the changes in England in the nineteenth century as the nation became the Workshop of the World; *The Face of the High Arctic* shows the physical geography of the region, its seasonal changes, glacial movements, and natural resources. *Maps for a Changing World* is a new edition of "The Airplane Changes Our World Map" and traces the evolution of world map concepts from ancient times to the jet age. *The Corn Farmer* is another second edition which brings up to date the work of the farmer in the corn belt of North America. A vivid picture of Viking life and customs is presented in *The Vikings: Life and Conquests*. Produced in Norway, this film carries a spirit of authenticity which will enliven and enrich history teaching.

The McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., Text Film Department (330 West 42nd St., New York 36) is the source of the famous "You Are There" TV films. Among the available motion pictures in this series are: *The Salem Witch Trials*, *The*

Boston Massacre, The Boston Tea Party, The Resolves of Patrick Henry, The Signing of the Declaration of Independence, Washington Crosses the Delaware, Benedict Arnold's Plot Against West Point, The Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, and Washington's Farewell to His Officers.

More recently McGraw-Hill has brought out an "Age of Exploration" series. Titles are *The Explorations of Prince Henry, The Age of Discovery, Fort Ticonderoga, Story of the Pilgrims, Valley Forge, The Era of Water Commerce 1750-1850, and The St. Lawrence Seaway.*

Welcome also are the films in McGraw-Hill's "Americap Adventure Series" such as *Settling the Great Plains, Life and Times of the Iron Horse,* and, best of all, a much needed film on the *War of 1812.* This latter film which is in color, traces the causes, the course of the fighting, and the results of the war.

Some of the best movies available on colonial life in America are produced and distributed by Colonial Williamsburg, Film Distribution Office (Goodwin Building, Williamsburg, Virginia). *The Story of a Patriot* is a magnificent color film on the pre-Revolutionary era. It tells how a member of the colonial legislature gradually loses his ties with the pro-British faction and, under the direct influence of such persons as Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, George Washington, and George Wythe, aligns himself with the American cause.

Other films available from Colonial Williamsburg include *Eighteenth Century Life in Colonial Williamsburg, Williamsburg Restored, The Colonial Printer, Decision at Williamsburg, Williamsburg in the American Heritage, and Sweet Land of Liberty.*

Teachers of primary and intermediate grades will find some very worthwhile films on community study available from Film Associates of California (11014 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles 25). Among these films are *Farmer Don and the City, Firehouse Dog, A Community Keeps House, A Day With Fireman Bill, Policeman Walt Learns His Job, and A Community Keeps Healthy.*

"Primitive Man in Our World" is the theme of a new series of films produced by Bailey Films, Inc. (6509 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood 28, California). The title film *Primitive Man in Our World* shows the basic pattern of native life

in the Sepic River region of New Guinea. A related film, *Nomads of the North,* pictures the nomadic life of the owners of a herd of reindeer in northern Alaska. *Tigera: Ageless City of the Arctic* shows the archaeological remains of a civilization 3,000 years old and draws a contrast between living condition in this region then and now.

Northern Films (Box 98, Main Office Station, Seattle 11) presents a new slant on Alaska in their film, *People of Alaska.* Opening with a view of migrants on their way to the forty-ninth state, the film asks, "What will they do when they get to Alaska?" The camera then goes on ahead. On to Ketchikan and an exploration of a variety of jobs in connection with airlines, and timber resources. Then on to the Shumagin Islands for views of king-crab fishing. Another jump of nearly 1,000 miles takes the camera to Fairbanks for a visit with a newspaper reporter. We also visit geologists searching for oil, farmers working the land, radio and television workers setting up stations, and many other of the busy people of Alaska.

The AFL-CIO Film Division (Department of Education, 815 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) offers a 14-minute film called *Better Schools for a Better America.* The film documents the current school problem and calls for support of federal aid for children. This film rents for \$3.00 per day.

Filmstrips

Life Filmstrips (Time and Life Building, Rockefeller Center, New York 20) now offers 107 filmstrips in black-and-white or in color. Most recent offerings include *Alaska and Hawaii,* two strips in color which sell for \$6 each. *Life* also offers two sound filmstrips, complete with records and copies of the script. They are *Market of the Sixties,* a pictorial description of the national market during the next ten years, and *The Revolution of Expectations* which traces the growth of individual freedom and the progression to higher living standards by the world's people. These sound filmstrips cost \$7.50 each.

A new and interesting idea in a combination book-filmstrip-record is presented by Encyclopaedia Britannica Films (1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Illinois). *The Story of Yankee Whaling* is a package consisting of an American Heritage Junior Library book, three filmstrips

adding to the book's rich variety of pictures, and a record containing songs and sounds of the sea. The entire package sells for \$19.90.

A recent EBF filmstrip series deals with "Our Public Utilities." Individual titles are *Electricity for the Community*, *Telephones for the Community*, *Gas for the Community*, *Water for the Community*, *Waste Disposal for the Community*, *Public Transportation for the Community*. This interesting series of six filmstrips in color sells for \$36.00.

European Lands—Series I is a series of five color filmstrips produced by the Jam Handy Organization (2821 East Grand Blvd., Detroit

11). The titles are: *The Netherlands*, *Denmark*, *Belgium*, *Switzerland*, and *Austria*.

The Herbert E. Budek Company (324 Union St., Hackensack, New Jersey) have a long list of color filmstrips suitable for use in geography classes. Among those listed are *San Francisco*, *Views Across Georgia*, *The High Plateaus of Utah*, *Central Valley of California*, *New England*, *Panama Canal*, *Costa Rica*, *Peru*, *Brazil*, *Bolivia*, *Tribes and Temples of Columbia*, *Greece*, *Switzerland*, *Australian Countryside*, *Old Jerusalem*, *The Four Seasons in Rural Japan*, *Pakistan*, *Algeria*, and many others.

FREEDOM AND DIGNITY

(Continued from page 223)

Writing in the Winter 1961 issue of the *Columbia University Forum*, in an article entitled "Nonsense and Foreign Aid," Norman Bailey pointed out that "the only way to develop the economy of any country is through the formation of capital." He then went on to warn that all the foreign aid the more privileged nations, including those in the Communist world as well as the free nations of the West, can hope to provide is but a drop in the bucket when viewed from the perspective of the great need. Most of the capital required to build the highways, hydroelectric plants, factories, and other essentials of an industrial economy must be accumulated by the peoples of the underdeveloped nations—accumulated, as it has been in every industrialized nation, by saving and self-sacrifice on the part of the people themselves.

It is one thing to lift the burden of poverty. It is something else again to win freedom and dignity. The one requires intelligent planning, cooperative effort, and plain hard work. The other requires knowledge and understanding, and the vision and the will and the upward reach of the spirit. On this point, Thoreau, whom we quoted in the headnote, had much to say.

"The life in us is like the water in the river," he wrote in the concluding paragraphs of *Walden*. "It may rise this year higher than man has ever known it, and flood the parched uplands; even this may be the eventful year, which will drown out all our muskrats. It was not always dry land where we dwell. I see far inland the banks

which the stream anciently washed, before science began to record its freshets. Everyone has heard the story which has gone the rounds of New England, of a strong and beautiful bug which came out of the dry leaf of an old table of appletree wood, which had stood in a farmer's kitchen for sixty years, first in Connecticut, and afterward in Massachusetts,—from an egg deposited in the living tree many years earlier still, as appeared by counting the annual layers beyond it; which was heard gnawing out for several weeks, hatched perchance by the heat of an urn. Who does not feel his faith in a resurrection and immortality strengthened by hearing of this? Who knows what beautiful and winged life, whose egg has been buried for ages under many concentric layers of woodenness in the dead dry life of society, deposited at first in the alburnum of the green and living tree, which has been gradually converted into the semblance of its well-seasoned tomb—heard perchance gnawing out now for years by the astonished family of man, as they sat round the festive board,—may unexpectedly come forth from amidst society's most trivial and handselled furniture, to enjoy its perfect summer life at last!

"I do not say that John or Jonathan will realize all this; but such is the character of that morrow which mere lapse of time can never make to dawn. The light which puts out our eyes is darkness to us. Only that day dawns to which we are awake. There is more day to dawn. The sun is but a morning star."

—LEWIS PAUL TODD

Book Reviews

Daniel Roselle

I. THE RUSSIAN SCHOOLTEACHER

Almost two million teachers are now employed in the Soviet Union! This fact alone points out the difficulty of attempting to draw generalizations concerning the Russian schoolteacher. On the other hand, the increasing amount of source material coming from the Soviet Union now makes it possible for American teachers to add to their understanding of their Russian counterparts. *Diary of a Russian Schoolteacher* by F. Vigdorova is one of the recent publications to open the door to the Russian teacher and her school. It is reviewed by Professor Edward T. Ladd, Emory University and Agnes Scott College, Georgia.



Diary of a Russian Schoolteacher. By F. Vigdorova. New York: Grove Press, 1960. 256 p. \$5.00.

By Edward T. Ladd

Despite its title this book is not a diary. It is an account of an imaginary beginning teacher's experiences in 1945-47 in the intermediate grades of a Moscow ten-year school for boys. It seems to be essentially a composite of true situations and episodes.

To the general American reader this book may say any of several things. It may tell him of the challenge of teaching, the extent of Russia's sufferings during "The Great Patriotic War," or the essential sameness of the ideals of ordinary Russians and ourselves. (At the rare points where the term "Soviet" is used, it appears from the context that the translator could have conveyed the intended meaning as well or better with our phrase "civic-minded.")

To the professional educator the book may say other things. We know how hard it is to find out what actually goes on in schools anywhere, and here we have an obviously serious, detailed picture of a small segment of recent Russian school practice. The sample of practice, though meager and already out of date, is revealing and suggestive. This reviewer would like to share a few of the thoughts it has prompted in him.

First, when compared with conventional

American practice, the teaching described strikes one, if not as startling, at least as good. Much is commonplace: diagramming of sentences, coloring of notebook-size maps, supervised study on arithmetic problems. But other practices catch our eye. Pupils were invited to record in a community notebook their reactions to books they especially liked. In a voluntary after-school session proposed by themselves the pupils retold in their own words stories from the life of a favorite author. Residents of the city and visitors with special knowledge were freely invited to come to the class for talks and questions. A group correspondence was carried on with a sailor in the Northern Fleet. The class went on untold excursions, ranging from a trip to the Botanical Gardens to "ramblings" in the woods. It "adopted" a nearby orphanage.

In junior and senior Russian classes a teacher is pictured as requiring papers based on study and careful outlining. None of the seniors "would have dared to put down a stereotyped phrase, for Lyubov Alexandrovna was scathing in her ridicule of anyone who resorted to ready-made formulas instead of thinking for himself. As for copying from the textbook or from some introductory articles on the subject, that was altogether out of the question. Never was her scorn so withering as when she caught a pupil trying to pass off someone else's ideas for his own.

"... But they never took offense, because behind the biting words they sensed a genuine respect for their abilities and a desire to make them do their best. She would hardly have been so severe if she did not have confidence in them."

Surprisingly, curriculum and method have none of the modernity which the term "Soviet education" brings to mind. There are no signs of electronic teaching devices or of pressure toward the technological; the pedagogical quotations are from Krupskaya and Makarenko, and the picture presented might almost have been taken from any European city in the '20's.

Other phases of the account may interest the American educator. The image of the teacher, while not strange, is different from that in *Our Miss Brooks*. The principal, assistant principal,

8

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and teachers we meet are full-time professionals, kindly on the whole but businesslike, devoted to their work and their children but far from sentimental or patronizing. They are intellectuals, and one has no doubts about their training, pedagogical or otherwise. One does not find them sacrificing the educational advantages of a field trip for fear that a child might get hurt or a parent be antagonized. One certainly cannot imagine them selling insurance on the side, or agreeably spending much time counting lunch money.

In America a storm seems about to break over the question of the self-contained classroom, especially for the intermediate grades. The scholars in the various disciplines seem to be unconcerned about the merits of the practice; supervision and curriculum people seem unwilling to subject it to impartial analysis. This book has something to say on this subject, too. It pictures a home-room teacher of ten- and eleven-year-olds who has a very close relationship with her whole class, has visited each pupil in his home, and is intimately acquainted with each individually. Yet the class has special teachers for several of the subjects. The situation is not unlike that in many of our junior high schools where the home-room teacher teaches an English and social studies core, with the other subjects—in this case including ancient history—taught by others.

While the account proves nothing about the self-contained classroom, it does suggest that more careful study of our own practice may be in order.

Despite its lack of plot or climax, the book has continuity and is readable and lively. The schooling it portrays is humane and democratic. At a time when the policies of the Soviet leadership are so much the opposite, it is good to know that this book is allowed to circulate with official approval.



II. FREUD AND DEWEY

Any study of the Russian schoolteacher and her school often leads to considerable discussion concerning the philosophy behind our own American educational system. In such discussions the names of Freud and Dewey enter prominently. Morton Levitt attempts to compare the work of both men in *Freud and Dewey on the Nature of Man*. The book is reviewed by Donald W. Robinson of Carlmont High School, Belmont, California.

Freud and Dewey on the Nature of Man. By Morton Levitt. New York: Philosophical Library, 1960. 180 p. \$3.75.

By Donald W. Robinson

The names of John Dewey and Sigmund Freud have become household names with school people; and their respective contributions in pointing out the importance of the environment and the importance of the unconscious have become commonplaces in our thinking, without much attention being given to the parallels between their lives and works. It would be well if teachers were more familiar with the lives and thoughts of these men, and this book can help them to increase their understanding of both.

On picking up this little volume one wonders why the comparison of these two giants had never before been attempted in book form. Here were two great contemporary scholars, both devoted to synthesizing psychological and philosophical thinking, both substantially influenced by Plato, William James, and Charles Darwin, both formulators of dynamic systems when dynamism was still suspect, both prolific writers, both anti-authoritarian, and both seeking the freedom of the individual. Yet seldom are the two names linked. Almost never does one think of the work of Sigmund Freud as being in any way comparable to that of John Dewey.

After reading the book, one no longer wonders at the lack of previous efforts to compare the Vermont philosopher with the Austrian psychoanalyst, for the likenesses emerge as coincidental similarities between two scholarly minds, products of the same heritage, working in allied fields. In fact, one is struck with the lack of mutuality in two great figures. The author suggests that in spite of the wide-ranging and catholic tastes and interests of both men that neither knew much about the other's work or thought and that they never met or corresponded. Yet paradoxically he quotes Max Eastman's report of Freud's statement, "John Dewey is one of the few men in the world for whom I have a high regard."

If the parallels between these intellectual leaders seem insignificant, or coincidental, the volume is far from insignificant. It is basically a study of two scholars, presented together, but essentially separated, not by the gulf between America and Europe, but by the gap that separates the philosophical experimentalism of one from the clinical experimentalism of the other. Although both sensed the impossibility of separating mind and body, and both felt that in-

instinct provided the link, they proceeded on different paths, each in his own thorough way, without finding it necessary to rely at all on the work of the other.

The author's own summation should present a fair estimate of how far he believes the comparison can be carried:

We have seen a picture of two men, products of the same basic social and intellectual climates, who were intellectually agnostic and anti-authoritarian. Both were bitterly opposed by theological groups, academic disciplines, and by much of the public; and each wrote on a wide variety of overlapping subjects including religion, metapsychology, logic, ethics, education, aesthetics, politics, war, philosophy, and psychology. The consequent assumption, therefore, that there were some areas of rapprochement between the two seems to be borne out by the record. Similarities outweigh differences and there is some feeling that the distinctions were the result of semantic confusion rather than ideological opposition. Using much the same constructs, Dewey chose to concentrate more and more on outer events while Freud continued to concern himself with inner events. In the final analysis, both contributed mightily to a deeper view of human behavior.

The author, who has been a clinical psychologist, a supervisor of student teaching, assistant professor and assistant dean in a college of medicine, understands the working application of both thought systems but displays an easier familiarity with Freud than with Dewey. His attempts to show parallels in the theoretical concepts of the two men fail to convince.

One gets the notion that Dewey kept himself far better informed on psychoanalysis than Freud did on emerging philosophies. Although Freud's education in the formal European system included the study of philosophy, his interest in the field continued only to the degree that every creative scholar must remain aware of his own philosophical direction.

Unfortunately, Morton Levitt resorts to claiming similarities that are forced or trivial. The implied awareness of the underlying importance of sex by Dewey, for instance, is supported only by a footnote relating to G. Stanley Hall, who was Dewey's mentor at Johns Hopkins and who introduced Freud to America in 1909 in the Worcester lecture series.

Too many suggested comparisons are based upon a single isolated quotation, or upon the pairing of excerpts from the writings of the two, with no assurance that the excerpts are representative. The suggestion that Dewey became disillusioned with William James is an example. Although Levitt is clearly familiar with both writers, and although he specifically cites pas-

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sages from six of Dewey's works and from nine of Freud's volumes, the conclusion is inescapable that these direct comparisons are spotty and fragmentary, pointing up the obvious fact that the main body of works is not really comparable.

These limitations inherent in the study cannot detract from the value of the published work. It represents a substantial piece of scholarship and an intriguing and imaginative bit of comparison, which should lead others to pursue the threads of likeness from different approaches, perhaps through a comparison of the fruits of their work.

The book is studded with provocative generalizations such as, "Dewey's social psychology emphasized the contemporaneous, and he even seemed to be prepared, on occasion, to account for the past in terms of the present. Freud, contrariwise, viewed the present through the past. In retrospect it would appear that Dewey's position was the more optimistic of the two."

At the same time the book is not without its questionable quotes, such as this unexplained tidbit from Lionel Trilling, "all who are by temperament strongly drawn to Dewey are likely to be troubled, or even repelled by Freud, certainly to oppose him." As one who accepts the views of both Freud and Dewey and sees their contributions as harmonious and complimentary, this reader is puzzled by Trilling's remark. More important, he is gratified by Morton Levitt's contribution to the understanding of Freud and Dewey.

III. BOOK FARE

The Contemporary World

The Contemporary World: The Social Sciences in Historical Perspective. By Thomas N. Bonner, Duane W. Hill, and George L. Wilber. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1960. 594 p. \$7.95.

This social science textbook, aimed at the beginning college student, has several appealing features. Its materials are organized around a limited number of meaningful themes (personal loyalties, industrialism, urbanism, bureaucracy, and international tensions) which permit a genuine integration of the social sciences; its style is uniform and readable; it recognizes the importance of historical and international context; it consciously aims at making the materials learnable; and it provides useful, briefly annotated bibliographies. Within the limits of a one-volume treatment, and assuming the extensive

use of supplementary readings, the authors do accomplish two of their three main objectives: to introduce the student to the social universe; and to demonstrate the essential unity of the social sciences.

Inevitably, in work of such scope, there will be grist for the critic's mill. The title is misleading, for one thing, for this is primarily a study of the United States in European perspective. There are factual lapses and occasional use of outdated or dubious historical judgments. The depiction of the United States as "an innocent nation in a wrathful world" (p. 532) is certainly overdone. But the crucial shortcoming of this work, which to the reviewer at least outweighs its many advantages, relates to the third aim of its authors: to encourage further exploration. This is an important aim, for the authors claim that "social science may represent the last, best chance we have to construct a social order more rational and meaningful than the one we now possess." Yet the entire orientation of the book is better suited to bring about complacency or resigned acceptance of the existing than to challenge, provoke and stimulate. An exaggerated dedication to "objectivity" (Marxism is of course "refuted") has led to the burying of issues amidst a veritable avalanche of opposing opinions and theories, and has all but removed focus from the area of solutions. The total effect, despite the authors' intentions, is to suggest strongly that problems are solved *automatically*—by history (its march of progress) and by government (which "steps in" providentially when needed).

NATHAN SMITH

Washington College
Chestertown, Maryland

American Education

Education in America. By James Monroe Hughes. Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson Company, 1960. 491 p. \$6.00.

This is an overview of American education covering (1) the teacher, (2) European heritage, (3) American school systems, and (4) pupil growth and development. This volume also discusses instruction and guidance, qualifications for teaching, and the fact that women outnumber men in this profession.

The section on leadership is most interesting and supports the Turner frontier theory which promoted freedom, individual intelligence, and the value of work. The systems of local, state and national education are explained and also the

important non-public schools. The Educational Policies Commission studies of 1938 are used to illustrate aims in our educational program.

The author has a good sense of American development and some unique features borrowed from European influences. Some of the more recent alterations are hardly mentioned, however, except for the influence of science on the curriculum. The tremendous stir in the foreign language field passes unmentioned at a time when some feel that peace of the world depends upon educational development of the language-culture concept. The most serious omission seems to be that the entire college phase of our education receives no recognition. We now have not only the private colleges, but the more recent state and metropolitan institutions which play a major role in American education.

This text gives a fine readable survey of American education, especially in terms of elementary education. Questions and projects are listed for each chapter, and the volume closes with a superb series of suggested readings. The quotations from educational leaders are stimulating and, with numerous illustrations and charts, promote interest in general reading.

HERBERT A. CLARK

Hood College
Maryland

University Adult Education: A Guide to Policy.

By Renee and William Petersen. A project planned and directed by Warren Rovetch. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960. xx + 288 p. \$5.50.

In this volume the Petersens have drawn upon the experiences of a national survey of university extension activities to analyze practices and policies and to establish rigorous guide lines. The Petersens make very clear their belief that "the purpose of a university's adult-education program . . . should be to conduct college-level education." And their guide to policy aims at excellence.

Thus it follows that this is a disturbing book; for the realities of university adult education are far short of being ideal. This book clearly makes evident the contradictions. Adult education generally and university adult education specifically are subjected to penetrating overviews. A chapter on "university non-education for adults" is critical of the extension of the university to "functions—recreation, social welfare and reform, commercialism, and public relations

—that do not jibe with the purposes of an institution of higher learning." The chapter on policy is a constructive challenge for purpose, scope, administration, and finance. A subsequent chapter illustrates the application of these principles to university adult education in the field of *foreign affairs education*.

Warren Rovetch has added an excellent summary of Cooperative Extension (Smith-Lever Act) and the Land-Grant System in University Adult Education. The book is heavily foot-noted and includes a 35-page bibliography.

The book is consistently well written and deserves to be well read.

PHIL C. LANGE

Teachers College
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Lucy and Tom's Day. By Shirley Hughes. (William R. Scott, 1960. \$2.75) (Grades 1-3)

In this pleasant little story, the daily activities of two English children are presented. These activities are quite like those of young children in America, but the illustrations give the reader a feeling and appreciation for life in another land. American children will be pleased by this tale and feel a real closeness to Lucy and Tom.

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India, and to see some of the problems brought on by the conflict between the new and the old way of life.

They're Drowning Our Village. By A. Rutgers van der Loeff, translated from the Dutch by Roy Edwards. (Watts, 1960. \$2.95) (Grades 6-8)

Here is a realistic treatment of the opposition of the villagers of Saint Silvestre (in the French Alps) to the coming of a hydroelectric power plant which will flood the site of the village. The reader will experience feelings of sympathy for those who try to hold back inevitable progress. And the strong emotions of both adults and children in the story will enable him to understand the drama that is involved in the relocation of a village.



IV. EDIT-BITS

... *In Place of Folly* by Norman Cousins (Harper and Brothers, \$3.00) is the most important book that this reviewer has read in the last five years. A crystal clear analysis of the folly—idiocy would be a better word—of nuclear, chemical, biological, and radiological warfare, the volume is a powerful call to mankind to save itself while there is still time. As Norman Cousins states:

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... *The Facts of American Life*, edited by M. B. Schnapper (Public Affairs Press, \$6.00), presents, in question and answer form, authoritative and up-to-date information about the United States. Choose a category—the American people, resources, government, ways of life, economy, labor, agriculture, science, health, education, culture, or America and the world—and you will find a fascinating collection of questions and answers in the book. This publication is especially recommended for American travelers overseas who often serve unofficial Answer Men for questions they have never asked themselves.

... Finally, our old friend Monsieur Dannie has been gracious enough to prepare for us his own definitions of literary terms. We publish his list without comment—except to remind our readers that Monsieur Dannie is never to be taken too seriously:

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2. *Term:* "A new anthology." *Actual Meaning:* A collection of writings drawn from a number of old anthologies.
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